ORIGINAL CONTRIBUTIONS





Utilization of Anti-obesity Medications After Bariatric Surgery: Analysis of a Large National Database

Stephen A. Firkins¹ · Vibhu Chittajallu² · Bailey Flora¹ · Heesoo Yoo³ · Roberto Simons-Linares¹

Received: 8 September 2023 / Revised: 14 March 2024 / Accepted: 14 March 2024 / Published online: 21 March 2024 © The Author(s), under exclusive licence to Springer Science+Business Media, LLC, part of Springer Nature 2024

Abstract

Purpose A significant proportion of patients experience insufficient weight loss or weight regain after bariatric surgery. There is a paucity of literature describing anti-obesity medication (AOM) use following bariatric surgery. We sought to identify prevalence and trends of AOM use following bariatric surgery.

Materials and Methods We utilized the IBM Explorys® database to identify all adults with prior bariatric surgery (Rouxen-Y gastric bypass or sleeve gastrectomy). Those prescribed AOMs (semaglutide, liraglutide, topiramate, phentermine/ topiramate, naltrexone/bupropion, orlistat) within 5 years of surgery were further identified. Data was analyzed to characterize AOM utilization among different age, demographic, and comorbid populations.

Results A total of 59,160 adults with prior bariatric surgery were included. Among AOMs studies, prevalence of use was highest for topiramate (8%), followed by liraglutide (2.9%), phentermine/topiramate (1.03%), naltrexone/bupropion (0.95%) semaglutide (0.52%), and orlistat (0.17%). Age distribution varied, with the highest utilization among those age 35–39 years for topiramate, 40–44 years for phentermine/topiramate and naltrexone/bupropion, 45–49 years for semaglutide, and 65–69 years for liraglutide and orlistat. African American race was associated with higher utilization across all AOMs. Among comorbidities, hypertension, hyperlipidemia, and diabetes mellitus were most associated with AOM use.

Conclusion Despite a relatively high incidence of weight regain, AOMs are underutilized following bariatric surgery. It is imperative that barriers to their use be addressed and that AOMs be considered earlier and more frequently in patients with insufficient weight loss or weight regain after bariatric surgery.

Keywords Anti-obesity medication · Bariatric · Weight loss · Roux-en-Y gastric bypass · Sleeve gastrectomy

| • Ii 0 • C p u | Points a this analysis, FDA-approved AOMs were only prescribed in 17–2.91% of patients within 5 years of bariatric surgery. b) the AOMs studied, topiramate was used with highest revalence (8.0%) after bariatric surgery and is more likely to be sed in younger patients. b) LP-1 receptor agonists are more likely to be prescribed among atients with comorbid diabetes and cardiovascular risk factors. |
|----------------------------|--|
| | Roberto Simons-Linares simonsc@ccf.org; robertosimons@outlook.com |
| 1 | Digestive Diseases and Surgery Institute, Cleveland Clinic Foundation, 9500 Euclid Ave, Cleveland, OH 44195, USA |
| 2 | Digestive Health Institute, University Hospitals, Cleveland, OH, USA |
| 3 | Community Care Institute, Cleveland Clinic Foundation, |

| Community | / Care | institute, | Cleveland | CII |
|------------|--------|------------|-----------|-----|
| Cleveland. | OH. U | ISA | | |

| Abbreviations | |
|---------------|--|
| USPSTF | United States Preventive Services Task |
| | Force |
| BMI | Body mass index |
| IWL | Insufficient weight loss |
| WR | Weight regain |
| RYGB | Roux-en-Y gastric bypass |
| AOM | Anti-obesity medication |
| GABA | Gamma aminobutyric acid |
| GLP-1 | Glucagon-like peptide-1 |
| FDA | Food and Drug Administration |
| SG | Sleeve gastrectomy |
| SNOMED-CT | Systematized Nomenclature of Medicine- |
| | Clinical Terms |
| HIPAA | Health Insurance Portability and |
| | Accountability Act |
| CVA | Cerebrovascular accident |
| MI | Myocardial infarction |
| OR | Odds ratio |

| CI | Confidence interval |
|-----|---------------------|
| EWL | Excess weight loss |
| TWL | Total weight loss |

Introduction/Purpose

Obesity is a global pandemic affecting over 650 million adults worldwide [1]. In the USA alone, 41.9% of adults have obesity—a figure estimated to approach 50% by the year 2030 [2, 3]. The United States Preventive Services Task Force (USPSTF) recommends screening all adults for obesity and referring those with a body mass index (BMI) \geq 30 kg/m² to intensive, multicomponent specialty resources [4]. Yet despite implementation of obesity screening and management strategies, obesity and obesity-related comorbidities continue to contribute significant social, economic, and healthcare burden.

Bariatric surgery is the most effective and durable weight loss solution, with nearly 200,000 procedures performed in 2020 in the USA [5, 6]. In addition to weight loss, bariatric surgery is associated with significant reduction in obesityrelated comorbidities, malignancy, and overall mortality [7–9]. Despite its efficacy, a proportion of patients can experience insufficient weight loss (IWL) or weight regain (WR) following surgery. IWL is commonly defined as achieving <50% excess weight loss (EWL) and WR as 10% of nadir weight or 25% EWL from nadir, with a conservative estimate of 20-25% of patients experiencing significant WR after surgery [10, 11]. Furthermore, a re-emergence of previously resolved or "in remission" related metabolic diseases is seen with WR [12, 13]. Determinants of WR include increased time from surgery, dietary indiscretion, gastrojejunal stomal diameter, gastric sleeve volume, behavioral eating patterns (food urges, binge eating, disinhibition), dysphagia, and genetics; and can often be multi-factorial and complex [14-16].

Treatment options for IWL and WR after bariatric surgery are limited, as many patients qualified for primary weight loss surgery have already attempted and failed intensive dietary and lifestyle interventions. Various endoscopic and surgical revisional therapies may be considered; however, reoperation carries a higher risk of complications compared to the primary surgery [17]. As such, in the absence of any anatomic issue promoting weight regain, a pharmacologic approach with anti-obesity medications presents a potentially attractive alternative for this population.

Anti-obesity medications (AOMs) have been utilized since at least the 1960s. However, in response to the ballooning obesity crisis, there has also been expansion in the number of Food and Drug Administration (FDA)-approved AOMs [18]. As of this study's completion, five medications are approved by the US FDA for long-term use in treating obesity—semaglutide, liraglutide, phentermine-topiramate, naltrexone-bupropion, and orlistat. AOMs confer an additional 3–9% total body weight loss (TBWL) compared to placebo, with newer incretin-targeting AOM generations surpassing 15% TBWL, though limited data exist describing their use in the post-bariatric surgery population [19].

In a large, retrospective analysis of 319 patients with WR after bariatric surgery, Stanford et al. reported that 56% achieved clinically meaningful ($\geq 5\%$) weight loss with AOM use. Yet, only topiramate was significantly associated with predicting weight loss [20]. Additional analyses are limited by small sample sizes and lack of inclusion of all currently-approved AOMs. To adequately treat this chronic, relapsing disease, it is imperative that the role of AOMs in the post-bariatric surgery patient with weight regain is more fully understood. As such, we present the largest study to date analyzing utilization of AOMs after bariatric surgery.

Materials and Methods

Study Design and Database

A population-based commercial database (IBM® Explorys® database, IBM, Armonk, NY) was utilized to identify all adult subjects who had undergone bariatric surgery (RYGB or sleeve gastrectomy [SG]) between October, 2009 and September, 2022. Explorys® aggregates de-identified, longitudinal healthcare data derived from over 64 million unique patients from over 400 acute care centers across all 50 states. Data regarding diagnoses, procedures and medications are arranged in the Systematized Nomenclature of Medicine-Clinical Terms (SNOMED-CT) hierarchy and RxNorm. As data is de-identified and thus compliant with the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPAA), the study was exempt from approval by the Institutional Review Board.

Explorys[®] was queried using appropriate SNOMED-CT codes to define bariatric surgeries (Supplemental Table 1) and variables of interest. FDA-approved long-term AOMssemaglutide (Ozempic), liraglutide (Saxenda, Victoza), phentermine-topiramate (Qsymia), naltrexone-bupropion (Contrave), and orlistat (Alli, Xenical)-with the exception of setmelanotide (IMCIVREE), as well as topiramate monotherapy were included for analysis (Fig. 1). Lorcaserin (Belviq) was not included due to its withdrawal from the US Market in 2020, and tirzepatide (Zepbound) was not yet approved for weight loss at the time of this analysis. Topiramate, although not FDA-approved for long-term use for weight loss, was included as it has previously demonstrated significant association with predicting weight loss in bariatric patients with WR [20]. Subjects with history of migraines, seizure disorders and phentermine use were

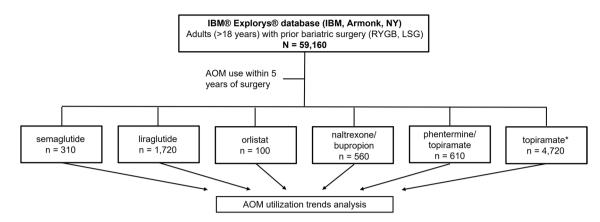


Fig. 1 Study flowchart. *Excluded from topiramate group: migraine, seizure disorder, phentermine use. RYGB: Roux-en-Y gastric bypass; SG: sleeve gastrectomy; AOM: anti-obesity medication

excluded from the topiramate group. Only AOMs initiated within 5 years after surgery were included for analysis due to expected accumulation of unaccounted confounders with increased post-surgical time.

study [21]. For all analyses, a 2-sided *p*-value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Demographic and Clinical Data

Subject characteristics included age, sex, race, BMI and comorbid conditions. The BMI correlating to obesity in the database is coded as BMI > 30 kg/m^2 and > 40 kg/m^2 ; thus, subjects were stratified and included as such according to the designation as of the time of inclusion (i.e. surgery). Age was further stratified for sub-analysis into 5-year age groups, from < 20 years to ≥ 90 years, which is the entire spectrum of age ranges available in Explorys®. Comorbidities investigated included smoking, alcohol use, diabetes mellitus, hyperlipidemia, cerebrovascular accident (CVA), and myocardial infarction (MI). The primary outcome of interest was prevalence of AOM use following bariatric surgery among various comorbid populations, with the aim of identifying characteristic trends of AOM use. The secondary outcome of interest was to identify predictors of AOM use within 5 years of bariatric surgery (RYGB or SG).

Statistical Analysis

Demographics data extracted from Explorys® were categorical and thus presented as counts and percentages. Prevalence of AOM use among various groups was calculated as a percentage of the whole cohort of bariatric surgery patients. Univariable analysis was performed to assess differences in prevalence of demographic and comorbid conditions for those prescribed AOMs vs controls by calculating odds ratios (OR) and 95% confidence interval (CI). OR, standard error and 95% CI were calculated according to Altman, 1991, using the MedCalc Statistical Software with a cohort

Results

Baseline Characteristics

A total of 59,160 adults with a history of RYGB or SG were included in the analysis (Table 1), 69.4% of which were SG. The median age range for eligible subjects was 50-54 years (n = 8080) and 77.42% of subjects were under 65 years of age. Similar to prior analyses, the majority of subjects were Caucasian (75.85%) and female (77.79%). Metabolic comorbidities were most commonly represented, with rates highest for hypertension (65.57%), followed by hyperlipidemia (53.85%) and diabetes mellitus (38.86%), while rates of CVA and MI were relatively low (0.69% and 4.75%, respectively). Most subjects had at least one recorded BMI > 40 mg/kg² (56.44%).

Prevalence of AOM Use After Bariatric Surgery

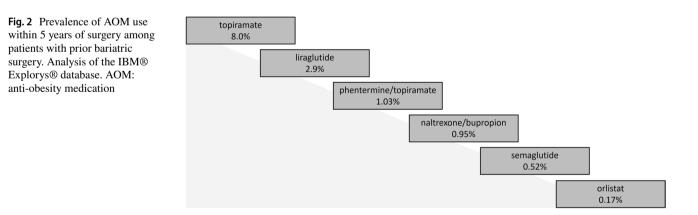
Among long-term FDA-approved AOMs started within 5 years of bariatric surgery, liraglutide displayed the highest prevalence at 2.91% (Fig. 2). Next was phentermine-topiramate (1.03%) followed by naltrexone-bupropion (0.95%), semaglutide (0.52%) and orlistat (0.17%). Topiramate monotherapy was the most frequently prescribed overall, with use seen in 8.0% of subjects following surgery. AOM use was more prevalent among subjects with metabolic comorbidities (hypertension, diabetes, hyperlipidemia) across all medications, with the highest prevalence seen for the GLP-1 agonists, semaglutide and liraglutide.

| | Overall $(n = 59, 3)$ | 160) | Sema $(n = 3)$ | glutide 310) | Liraght $(n = 1)$ | | Topira $(n = 4)$ | | Phene topira (n = 0) | | Naltre bupre $(n = 2)$ | 1 | Orlia (<i>n</i> = 100) | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|-------|----------------|-----------------|-------------------|-------|------------------|-------|----------------------------|-------|------------------------|-------|----------------------------|----|
| | n | % | n | % | n | % | n | % | n | % | n | % | n | % |
| Subject characteristics | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age (years) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Adult (18-65) | 45,640 | 77.15 | 240 | 77.42 | 1310 | 76.16 | 4190 | 88.77 | 530 | 86.89 | 480 | 85.71 | 70 | 70 |
| Senior (>65) | 13,590 | 22.97 | 70 | 22.58 | 410 | 23.84 | 540 | 11.44 | 80 | 13.11 | 80 | 14.29 | 30 | 30 |
| Race | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Caucasian | 44,870 | 75.85 | 210 | 67.74 | 1340 | 77.91 | 3610 | 76.48 | 450 | 73.77 | 420 | 75 | 70 | 70 |
| African American | 10,610 | 17.93 | 90 | 29.03 | 350 | 20.35 | 1060 | 22.46 | 160 | 26.23 | 130 | 23.21 | 30 | 30 |
| Hispanic | 750 | 1.27 | 0 | 0 | 30 | 1.74 | 50 | 1.06 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Sex | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Female | 46,020 | 77.79 | 230 | 74.19 | 1290 | 75 | 4170 | 88.35 | 520 | 85.25 | 470 | 83.93 | 80 | 80 |
| Male | 13,130 | 22.19 | 70 | 22.58 | 430 | 25 | 550 | 11.65 | 90 | 14.75 | 90 | 16.07 | 20 | 20 |
| Comorbidities | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Smoking | 9820 | 16.6 | 50 | 16.13 | 360 | 20.93 | 910 | 19.28 | 90 | 14.75 | 80 | 14.29 | 20 | 20 |
| Alcohol | 2590 | 4.38 | 0 | 0 | 70 | 4.07 | 260 | 5.51 | 10 | 1.64 | 10 | 1.79 | 0 | 0 |
| Hypertension | 38,790 | 65.57 | 270 | 87.10 | 1480 | 86.05 | 3250 | 68.86 | 400 | 65.57 | 420 | 75 | 90 | 90 |
| Diabetes | 22,990 | 38.86 | 270 | 87.10 | 1480 | 86.05 | 2010 | 42.58 | 220 | 36.07 | 220 | 39.29 | 60 | 60 |
| Hyperlipidemia | 31,860 | 53.85 | 260 | 83.87 | 1420 | 82.56 | 2850 | 60.38 | 380 | 62.3 | 350 | 62.50 | 80 | 80 |
| CVA | 410 | 0.69 | 0 | 0 | 20 | 1.16 | 40 | 0.85 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| MI | 2810 | 4.75 | 30 | 9.68 | 140 | 8.14 | 210 | 4.45 | 20 | 3.28 | 20 | 3.57 | 0 | 0 |
| BMI (kg/m ²) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| >30 | 18,340 | 31 | 170 | 54.84 | 790 | 45.93 | 2020 | 42.8 | 310 | 50.82 | 280 | 50 | 50 | 50 |
| >40 | 33,390 | 56.44 | 230 | 74.19 | 1230 | 71.51 | 3250 | 68.86 | 430 | 70.49 | 400 | 71.43 | 60 | 60 |

Table 1Baseline characteristics of all adult subjects with history of bariatric surgery and AOM use within 5 years of surgery. Analysis of theIBM® Explorys® database

AOM anti-obesity medication, CVA cerebrovascular accident, MI myocardial infarction, BMI body mass index

Only data for those patients started on the specified AOMs within 5 years of surgery date were included for analysis



Univariable Analysis

Distribution of AOM use by age can be seen in Table 2 and Fig. 3. There was significant variability by age group at which different AOMs were most prescribed. Topiramate monotherapy was utilized most among younger patients,

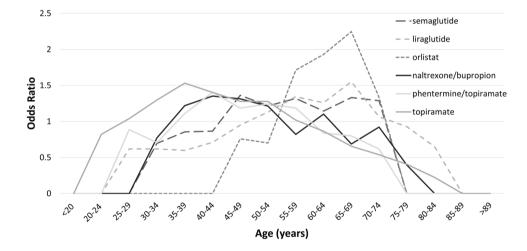
with those aged 35–39 years having the highest likelihood of topiramate use (OR 1.53, 95% CI 1.39–1.69). Meanwhile, increasing age was negatively correlated with topiramate use. AOMs most likely to be prescribed in the oldest age groups were liraglutide and orlistat, with highest OR among the 65–69-year age range (OR 1.55, 95% CI 1.35–1.78 and

Table 2 Age distribution of AOM use within 5 years of bariatric surgery

| | Semagluti | de | Liraglutid | e | Topiramat | e | Phentermine-Top | viramate | Naltrexone-Bup | ropion | Orlistat | |
|---------------|------------------|---------|------------------|---------|------------------|---------|------------------|----------|------------------|---------|------------------|---------|
| Age (years) | OR (95% CI) | p-value | OR (95% CI) | p-value | OR (95% CI) | p-value |
| Adult (18-65) | 1.02 (0.78-1.33) | 0.909 | 0.95 (0.84-1.06) | 0.324 | 2.48 (2.26-2.72) | <0.001 | 1.97 (1.56-2.5) | <0.001 | 1.79 (1.41-2.26) | <0.001 | 0.69 (0.45-1.06) | 0.09 |
| Senior (>65) | 0.98 (0.75-1.27) | 0.87 | 1.05 (0.94-1.18) | 0.387 | 0.41 (0.37-0.45) | <0.001 | 0.5 (0.4-0.64) | <0.001 | 0.56 (0.44-0.71) | <0.001 | 1.44 (0.94-2.21) | 0.096 |
| 15-19 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 20-24 | | | | | 0.82 (0.05-1.3) | 0.401 | | | | | | |
| 25-29 | | | 0.62 (0.4-0.97) | 0.035 | 1.04 (0.84-1.29) | 0.732 | 0.89 (0.47-1.66) | 0.708 | | | | |
| 30-34 | 0.7 (0.37-1.31) | 0.26 | 0.62 (0.47-0.82) | < 0.001 | 1.3 (1.14-1.48) | <0.001 | 0.71 (0.45-1.1) | 0.128 | 0.77 (0.49-1.21) | 0.26 | | |
| 35-39 | 0.86 (0.54-1.35) | 0.501 | 0.6 (0.48-0.75) | <0.001 | 1.53 (1.39-1.69) | <0.001 | 1.11 (0.83-1.49) | 0.483 | 1.22 (0.91-1.63) | 0.183 | | |
| 40-44 | 0.87 (0.59-1.26) | 0.455 | 0.71 (0.6-0.85) | <0.001 | 1.4 (1.29-1.53) | <0.001 | 1.41 (1.12-1.76) | 0.003 | 1.35 (1.07-1.72) | 0.013 | | |
| 45-49 | 1.36 (1.01-1.85) | 0.045 | 0.95 (0.82-1.1) | 0.499 | 1.28 (1.18-1.39) | <0.001 | 1.19 (0.95-1.49) | 0.135 | 1.32 (1.05-1.65) | 0.018 | 0.76 (0.4-1.46) | 0.821 |
| 50-54 | 1.22 (0.9-1.65) | 0.205 | 1.13 (0.99-1.29) | 0.074 | 1.28 (1.18-1.39) | <0.001 | 1.24 (1-1.54) | 0.048 | 1.21 (0.97-1.52) | 0.095 | 0.7 (0.37-1.35) | 0.289 |
| 55-59 | 1.32 (0.97-1.79) | 0.074 | 1.34 (1.18-1.53) | <0.001 | 1.02 (0.93-1.11) | 0.701 | 1.19 (0.95-1.49) | 0.135 | 0.82 (0.63-1.07) | 0.248 | 1.71 (1.05-2.8) | 0.031 |
| 60-64 | 1.14 (0.82-1.6) | 0.43 | 1.26 (1.1-1.45) | 0.001 | 0.86 (0.78-0.95) | 0.003 | 0.8 (0.64-1.1) | 0.202 | 1.1 (0.86-1.42) | 0.446 | 1.93 (1.18-3.15) | 0.009 |
| 65-69 | 1.33 (0.96-1.86) | 0.091 | 1.55 (1.35-1.78) | < 0.001 | 0.66 (0.58-0.74) | <0.001 | 0.8 (0.6-1.07) | 0.132 | 0.69 (0.5-0.95) | 0.023 | 2.25 (1.38-3.67) | 0.001 |
| 70-74 | 1.29 (0.88-1.88) | 0.189 | 1.07 (0.89-1.27) | 0.479 | 0.54 (0.47-0.62) | <0.001 | 0.62 (0.43-0.89) | 0.011 | 0.92 (0.67-1.27) | 0.625 | 1.33 (0.69-2.57) | 0.387 |
| 75-79 | | | 0.93 (0.73-1.18) | 0.548 | 0.41 (0.33-0.51) | <0.001 | | | 0.4 (0.21-0.74) | 0.004 | | |
| 80-84 | | | 0.65 (0.42-1.02) | 0.059 | 0.22 (0.14-0.35) | <0.001 | | | | | | |

AOM anti-obesity medication, OR odds ratio, CI confidence interval. Bolded values indicate statistical significance. Italicized cells indicate age group most likely to be prescribed each medication. Dashed lines indicate not enough data was available for that group. No AOMs were prescribed in patients age \geq 85 years; thus, these values were excluded from the table

Fig. 3 Likelihood of various AOM use by age. Age with maximum odds ratio, 95% confidence interval for each AOM: topiramate: 35–39 years (1.53; 1.39–1.69); phentermine-topiramate: 40–44 years (1.41; 1.12– 1.76); naltrexone-bupropion: 40–44 years (1.35; 1.07–1.72); semaglutide: 45–49 years (1.36; 1.01–1.85); liraglutide: 65–69 years (1.55; 1.35–1.78); orlistat: 65–69 years (2.25; 1.38–3.67)



OR 2.25, 95% CI 1.38–3.67, respectively). Combination phentermine-topiramate and naltrexone-bupropion were both most likely to be prescribed among subjects age 40–44 years (OR 1.41, 95% CI 1.12–1.76 and OR 1.35, 95% CI 1.07–1.72, respectively), while semaglutide was most utilized in patients aged 45–49 years (OR 1.36, 95% CI 1.01–1.85).

Analysis of AOM use among various demographic and comorbid populations is shown in Table 3. Despite AOMs more frequently being prescribed to Caucasian patients, African American race was a higher predictor of post-surgical AOM use across all medications. Similarly, female sex was more associated with use of topiramate (OR 2.28, 95% CI 2.08–2.5), phentermine-topiramate (OR 1.66, 95% CI 1.32–2.08), and naltrexone-bupropion (OR 1.5, 95% CI 1.19–1.88), while male sex was slightly more associated with liraglutide use (OR 1.17, 95% CI 1.05–1.31). No significant difference was seen in semaglutide or orlistat use among different sexes.

Significant correlation was seen between AOM use and metabolic comorbidities for nearly all medications. Both GLP-1 agonists (semaglutide, liraglutide) understandably showed high utilization among subjects with diabetes (OR 10.73 and 10.3, respectively), but also in subjects with

| | Semaglutide | | Liraglutide | | Topiramate | | Phentermine/topiramate | ramate | Naltrexone/bupropion | pion | Orlistat | |
|--------------------------|--|-----------------|-------------------------|-----------------|--|-----------------|--|-----------------|--------------------------------|-----------------|------------------------|-----------------|
| | OR (95% CI) | <i>p</i> -value | p-value OR (95% CI) | <i>p</i> -value | OR (95% CI) | <i>p</i> -value | OR (95% CI) | <i>p</i> -value | OR (95% CI) | <i>p</i> -value | OR (95% CI) | <i>p</i> -value |
| Race | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Caucasian | $0.67\ (0.53-0.85)$ | <0.001 | <0.001 1.13 (1–1.27) | 0.043 | 1.04 (0.97–1.11) 0.286 | 0.286 | 0.9 (0.75–1.07) | 0.229 | 0.96 (0.79–1.16) 0.639 | 0.639 | 0.74 (0.48–1.14) 0.173 | 0.173 |
| African American | African American 1.88 (1.47–2.40) | <0.001 | <0.001 1.18 (1.04–1.32) | 0.008 | 1.36 (1.27–1.46) <0.001 | <0.001 | 1.64 (1.37–1.96) <0.001 | <0.001 | 1.39 (1.14–1.69) 0.001 | 0.001 | 1.96 (1.28–3.01) | 0.002 |
| Hispanic | 1 | 1 | 1.4 (0.97–2.2) | 0.074 | 0.82 (0.62–1.1) | 0.183 | - | 1 | 1 | ł | - | ł |
| Sex | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Female | 0.82 (0.64–1.06) | 0.127 | 0.85 (0.76-0.95) | 0.005 | 2.28 (2.08–2.5) | <0.001 | <0.001 1.66 (1.32–2.08) <0.001 1.5 (1.19–1.88) | <0.001 | 1.5 (1.19–1.88) | <0.001 | <0.001 1.14 (0.7–1.87) | 0.595 |
| Male | 1.02 (0.78-1.34) | 0.869 | 1.17 (1.05–1.31) | 0.005 | 0.44(0.4-0.48) | < 0.001 | 0.6 (0.48–0.76) | < 0.001 | <0.001 0.67 (0.53–0.84) <0.001 | <0.001 | 0.88 (0.54–1.43) | 0.598 |
| Comorbidities | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Smoking | 0.97 (0.71–1.31) 0.824 | 0.824 | 1.34 (1.19–1.51) | <0.001 | <0.001 1.22 (1.13–1.32) <0.001 0.87 (0.69–1.09) 0.219 | <0.001 | 0.87 (0.69–1.09) | 0.219 | 0.84 (0.66–1.06) 0.14 | 0.14 | 1.26 (0.77–2.05) 0.361 | 0.361 |
| Alcohol use | : | ı | 0.93 (0.73-1.18) | 0.526 | 1.3 (1.14–1.49) | < 0.001 | 0.36 (0.19–0.68) 0.002 | 0.002 | 0.4 (0.21-0.74) | 0.004 | - | ł |
| Hypertension | 3.56 (2.56-4.97) | < 0.001 | <0.001 3.33 (2.9–3.82) | <0.001 | 1.18 (1.1–1.25) | < 0.001 | 1 (0.85–1.18) | 0.998 | 1.58 (1.31–1.92) | < 0.001 | 4.74 (2.46–9.1) | < 0.001 |
| Diabetes | 10.73 (7.7–14.97) | <0.001 | 10.3 (8.98-11.82) | <0.001 | 1.18 (1.11–1.26) | < 0.001 | 0.89 (0.75–1.05) 0.155 | 0.155 | 1.02 (0.86–1.21) | 0.836 | 2.36 (1.58-3.53) | <0.001 |
| Hyperlipidemia | 4.48 (3.31–6.07) | <0.001 | <0.001 4.2 (3.7-4.76) | <0.001 | 1.34 (1.26–1.42) | <0.001 | 1.42 (1.21–1.68) <0.001 | <0.001 | 1.43 (1.21–1.7) | <0.001 | 3.43 (2.1–5.61) | <0.001 |
| CVA | 1 | ł | 1.72 (1.1–2.7) | 0.02 | 1.25 (0.9–1.73) | 0.183 | - | ł | - | ł | - | ł |
| IM | 2.16 (1.48–3.16) <0.001 1.82 (1.52–2.17) | < 0.001 | 1.82 (1.52–2.17) | <0.001 | 0.93 (0.8–1.07) | 0.311 | 0.68 (0.43–1.06) 0.088 | 0.088 | 0.74 (0.47–1.16) 0.189 | 0.189 | - | ł |
| BMI (kg/m ²) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| >30 | 2.72 (2.17–3.4) | <0.001 | <0.001 1.93 (1.75–2.13) | <0.001 | <0.001 1.75 (1.65–1.86) <0.001 2.32 (1.98–2.72) <0.001 2.25 (1.9–2.65) | <0.001 | 2.32 (1.98–2.72) | <0.001 | 2.25 (1.9–2.65) | <0.001 | 2.23 (1.5–3.3) | <0.001 |
| >40 | 2.23 (1.73–2.87) | < 0.001 | <0.001 1.97 (1.78–2.19) | <0.001 | 1.78 (1.67–1.9) | <0.001 | 1.86 (1.56-2.21) | <0.001 | 1.94 (1.62–2.33) | <0.001 | 1.16 (0.78–1.73) | 0.473 |

hypertension (OR 3.56, 95% CI 2.56-4.97 and OR 3.33, 95% CI 2.9-3.82, respectively) and hyperlipidemia (OR 4.48, 95% CI 3.31-6.07 and OR 4.2, 95% CI 3.7-4.76, respectively). History of MI was also a positive predictor of GLP-1 agonist use. Metabolic comorbidities similarly predicted use of topiramate and orlistat while phentermine-topiramate and naltrexone-bupropion use were only positively correlated with presence of hyperlipidemia, and naltrexone-bupropion negatively correlated with diabetes. Interestingly, liraglutide and topiramate were more likely to be used among smokers (OR 1.34, 95% CI 1.19-1.51 and OR 1.22, 95% CI 1.13–1.32, respectively) as well as a higher utilization of topiramate among subjects with alcohol use (OR 1.3, 95% CI 1.14–1.49). Conversely, alcohol use was negatively associated with use of phentermine-topiramate (OR 0.36, 95% CI 0.19-0.68) and naltrexone-bupropion (OR 0.4, 95% CI 0.21-0.74). Finally, not surprisingly, both BMI >30 kg/m² and >40 kg/m² were significantly associated with post-surgical AOM use across the board, except for orlistat, which is likely due to smaller sample size.

Discussion/Conclusion

In this large, population-based analysis, considering an estimated 25% of patients following bariatric surgery experience significant WR with an additional percentage experiencing primary IWL, post-surgical AOM use within 5 years was exceedingly low [10, 11]. Prevalence of postsurgical AOMs is highest for topiramate (8.0%), followed by liraglutide (2.91%), phentermine-topiramate (1.03%), naltrexone-bupropion (0.95%), semaglutide (0.52%), and orlistat (0.17%). Substantial age variation exists at which different AOMs are utilized, with topiramate prescribed most commonly among younger patients (age 34-39 years) and liraglutide and orlistat used most among older patients (age 65-69 years). On our analysis, African American race was a predictor of AOM use across all medications, while female sex was associated with use of topiramate, phenterminetopiramate, and naltrexone-bupropion. Metabolic comorbidities (hypertension, diabetes, hyperlipidemia) were strong predictors of semaglutide, liraglutide, topiramate and orlistat use but less-so for phentermine-topiramate and naltrexonebupropion. Cardiovascular disease (CVA, MI) was also associated with GLP-1 agonist use. In the largest analysis of AOM utilization after bariatric surgery to date, this study not only identifies prescribing trends but also highlights a gross underutilization of these effective medications.

Insufficient weight loss and WR are prominent considerations regarding the long-term durability of bariatric surgery. WR is a primary indication for revisional surgery and cause for significant deterioration of quality of life and increased medical costs; thus, mitigation and management of WR are vital [17, 22]. In the absence of anatomic causes of WR/IWL warranting endoscopic or surgical intervention (such as a gastrogastric fistula), AOMs should be strongly considered. Although data for post-operative AOM use for WR is limited, studies suggest that the majority of patients with weight regain will achieve at least 5% total weight loss (TWL), which is considered clinically significant in regards to improving health metrics and outcomes [4, 20, 23]. In a large, retrospective analysis, Stanford et al. found that 319 of 5110 (6.24%) of subjects were prescribed AOMs after RYGB or SG [20]. Many were tried on multiple AOMs, suggesting that different AOMs are more effective for different patient phenotypes. 56% of subjects experienced at least 5% of post-surgical TWL, with 30.1% losing at least 10% and 16% losing 15% of total weight. After adjusting for covariates, only topiramate was a significant predictor of weight loss (OR 1.9, p = 0.018 for at least 10% TWL). Furthermore, they report a higher cumulative weight loss when AOMs were initiated at weight plateau compared to awaiting WR.

Despite these data showing a high rate of clinically meaningful response, we found very low prevalence of postoperative AOM use. Of specific AOMs studied, topiramate was the most utilized, consistent with prior data reporting a preponderance for off-label AOM use [20, 24]. Despite documented weight-loss efficacy and high rates of weight regain, FDA-approved AOMs continue to be underutilized following bariatric surgery, with prevalence ranging from <1 to 3%. For semaglutide, this is likely related to its onlyrecent approval for weight loss in July 2021; however, this has been utilized for glycemic control with known benefits on weight for much longer. Among the FDA-approved non-GLP-1 AOMs, none was utilized in >1% of individuals post-operatively.

While AOMs have been shown to improve cardiometabolic risk factors, prior to the approval of GLP-1 agonists for weight loss, no AOM had shown reduction in cardiovascular morbidity or mortality [19]. However, several novel antiglycemic agents including GLP-1 agonists have since exhibited reductions in major adverse cardiovascular events, particularly in patients with documented atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease [25]. As such, these are now widely used among patients with cardiovascular disease and diabetes. In this study, GLP-1 agonist use showed an expected association with MI as well as multiple cardiovascular comorbidities. Temporal relationship between GLP-1 prescription and MI or onset of cardiovascular disease was outside the scope of this analysis however these findings confirm current multisocietal recommendations for GLP-1 agonist use in patients at high cardiovascular risk [26].

African American race was more predictive of post-operative AOM utilization as well. This is somewhat counterintuitive considering the majority of patients who undergo bariatric surgery are Caucasian. No studies have demonstrated race to be a risk factor for IWL or WR; however, obesity does disproportionately affect African Americans [27, 28]. In particular, African American women have 20% higher rates of overweight and obesity compared to white women [27]. Additionally, diabetes and cardiovascular disease are more prominent among non-Hispanic black individuals compared to white individuals [29, 30]. While it is likely the higher rates of metabolic comorbidities account for some of the disparity among the GLP-1 medications, our findings that AOMs are more utilized among African Americans may also suggest either higher risk of IWL/WR or potentially more willingness to accept AOMs among this population.

There is also significant age variability at which different AOMs are utilized, likely related to increasing comorbidities, medication mechanism of action and potential side effects. For example, topiramate use is associated with younger age and negatively associated with increasing age. This may be related to known cognitive and central nervous system-depressing side effects of the medication increasing risk of adverse events in elderly patients. Conversely, GLP-1s are more utilized among older patients, which could be explained by higher rates of cardiovascular comorbidities and possibly diabetes along with relatively safe side effect profiles.

Several limitations must be addressed when interpreting this analysis. First there exist inherent limitations of the database, which utilizes SNOMED-CT nomenclature and thus limits the range of variables that may be studied. No code exists for RYGB performed specifically for obesity, which might overestimate the number of individuals for which AOMs would be indicated. Likewise, the database cannot distinguish primary from revisional surgeries and provides limited data regarding the severity of metabolic comorbidities (e.g., hemoglobin A1c) from which to gauge chronicity and refractoriness of the disease. Additionally, potential bias in data entry and classification may influence the true estimates of covariates. However, compared to ICD coding, SNOMED-CT allows for more concepts to be coded per clinical document, making it more accurate in documenting diagnoses and pertinent information [31-35].

Second, it is impossible to evaluate duration of medication use or compliance within the database, as well as their effect on weight loss. However, undocumented noncompliance would only further reduce true medication utilization. Third, although Explorys® was founded in 2009, newer medication use may be underestimated. We attempted to mitigate this effect by limiting analysis to AOMs prescribed within 5 years of surgery. Additionally, topiramate, liraglutide, and semaglutide have alternate indications for use and while the most common diagnoses for topiramate use (seizures, migraines) were excluded from analysis, this may reduce accuracy of prescribing trends for these medications. However, this again would only serve to further reduce the true prevalence of these medications used for post-operative weight loss from what is reported. Finally, while these data are overall generalizable, there is limited information regarding utilization in races other than white or African American. Despite these limitations, there is clinical utility in a study of this size highlighting underutilization of post-operative AOM use and identifying overlooked patient populations in which they should be considered.

In conclusion, despite high rates of WR/IWL following bariatric surgery and an increasing pool of literature confirming their efficacy in the post-bariatric surgery population, FDA-approved AOMs are only prescribed in a small fraction of post-bariatric surgery patients. Disparities in utilization exist across different age, race, and comorbid populations. Upon recognition of IWL or WR, a multidisciplinary strategy toward management is warranted, including behavioral and dietary counseling, medical and potentially surgical or endoscopic interventions [10]. However, with an ever-expanding armamentarium of effective and well-tolerated AOMs, these medications should be considered earlier and more frequently for IWL or WR as a long-term therapy to keep obesity and related metabolic diseases in remission.

Supplementary Information The online version contains supplementary material available at https://doi.org/10.1007/s11695-024-07181-w.

Author Contributions Study concept and design: RSL, SF, VC, BF, HY. Acquisition of data: SF, VC. Statistical analysis and data verification: SF, VC, BF, HY. Data analysis and interpretation: SF, VC, RSL. Drafting of manuscript: SF. Critical revision of manuscript for important intellectual content and review of final manuscript: SF, VC, HY, BF, RSL. Study supervision and guarantor of article: RSL. All authors have approved the final version of this manuscript.

Declarations

Ethics Approval For this type of study, formal consent is not required.

Informed Consent Informed consent does not apply.

Conflict of Interest The authors declare no competing interests.

References

- World Health Organization. Newsroom. Obesity and overweight. https://www.who.int/en/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/obesity-andoverweight. Accessed 24 Dec 2023
- Ward ZJ, Bleich SN, Cradock AL, et al. Projected U.S. state-level prevalence of adult obesity and severe obesity. N Engl J Med. 2019;381(25):2440–50. https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMsa1909301.
- Stierman B, Afful J, Carroll MD, et al. National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey 2017–March 2020 prepandemic data files—development of files and prevalence estimates for selected health outcomes. In: National Health Statistics Reports; no 158. Hyattsville, MD: National Center for Health Statistics; 2021. https://doi.org/10.15620/cdc:106273.
- 4. Moyer VA, Force USPST. Screening for and management of obesity in adults: U.S. Preventive Services Task Force

recommendation statement. Ann Intern Med. 2012;157(5):373– 8. https://doi.org/10.7326/0003-4819-157-5-201209040-00475.

- Buchwald H, Avidor Y, Braunwald E, et al. Bariatric surgery: a systematic review and meta-analysis. JAMA. Oct 13 2004;292(14):1724-1737. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.292.14. 1724
- Clapp B, Ponce J, DeMaria E, et al. American Society for Metabolic and Bariatric Surgery 2020 estimate of metabolic and bariatric procedures performed in the United States. Surg Obes Relat Dis. 2022;18(9):1134–40. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soard. 2022.06.284.
- Crémieux PY, Ledoux S, Clerici C, et al. The impact of bariatric surgery on comorbidities and medication use among obese patients. Obes Surg. 2010;20(7):861–70. https://doi.org/10. 1007/s11695-010-0163-6.
- Sundbom M, Hedberg J, Marsk R, et al. Substantial decrease in comorbidity 5 years after gastric bypass: a population-based study from the Scandinavian Obesity Surgery Registry. Ann Surg. 2017;265(6):1166–71. https://doi.org/10.1097/SLA.00000 00000001920.
- Sjöström L. Review of the key results from the Swedish Obese Subjects (SOS) trial - a prospective controlled intervention study of bariatric surgery. J Intern Med. 2013;273(3):219–34. https://doi.org/10.1111/joim.12012.
- El Ansari W, Elhag W. Weight regain and insufficient weight loss after bariatric surgery: definitions, prevalence, mechanisms, predictors, prevention and management strategies, and knowledge gaps-a scoping review. Obes Surg. 2021;31(4):1755–66. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11695-020-05160-5.
- Karmali S, Brar B, Shi X, et al. Weight recidivism post-bariatric surgery: a systematic review. Obes Surg. 2013;23(11):1922–33. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11695-013-1070-4.
- DiGiorgi M, Rosen DJ, Choi JJ, et al. Re-emergence of diabetes after gastric bypass in patients with mid- to long-term followup. Surg Obes Relat Dis. 2010;6(3):249–53. https://doi.org/10. 1016/j.soard.2009.09.019.
- Laurino Neto RM, Herbella FA, Tauil RM, et al. Comorbidities remission after Roux-en-Y Gastric Bypass for morbid obesity is sustained in a long-term follow-up and correlates with weight regain. Obes Surg. 2012;22(10):1580–5. https://doi.org/10. 1007/s11695-012-0731-z.
- Athanasiadis DI, Martin A, Kapsampelis P, et al. Factors associated with weight regain post-bariatric surgery: a systematic review. Surg Endosc. 2021;35(8):4069–84. https://doi.org/10. 1007/s00464-021-08329-w.
- 15. Bastos EC, Barbosa EM, Soriano GM, et al. Determinants of weight regain after bariatric surgery. Arq Bras Cir Dig. 2013;26(Suppl 1):26–32. https://doi.org/10.1590/s0102-67202 013000600007.
- Runge TM, Jirapinyo P, Chan WW, et al. Dysphagia predicts greater weight regain after Roux-en-Y gastric bypass: a longitudinal case-matched study. Surg Obes Relat Dis. 2019;15(12):2045–51. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soard.2019. 06.041.
- Brethauer SA, Kothari S, Sudan R, et al. Systematic review on reoperative bariatric surgery: American Society for Metabolic and Bariatric Surgery Revision Task Force. Surg Obes Relat Dis. 2014;10(5):952–72. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soard.2014. 02.014.
- Bessesen DH, Van Gaal LF. Progress and challenges in anti-obesity pharmacotherapy. Lancet Diab Endocrinol. 2018;6(3):237– 48. https://doi.org/10.1016/S2213-8587(17)30236-X.
- Yanovski SZ, Yanovski JA. Long-term drug treatment for obesity: a systematic and clinical review. JAMA. 2014;311(1):74– 86. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2013.281361.

- Stanford FC, Alfaris N, Gomez G, et al. The utility of weight loss medications after bariatric surgery for weight regain or inadequate weight loss: a multi-center study. Surg Obes Relat Dis. 2017;13(3):491–500. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soard.2016. 10.018.
- Altman DG. Practical Statistics for Medical Research. Boca Raton: CRC Press; 1990.
- Sheppard CE, Lester EL, Chuck AW, Birch DW, Karmali S, de Gara CJ. The economic impact of weight regain. Gastroenterol Res Pract. 2013;2013:379564. https://doi.org/10.1155/2013/ 379564.
- Nor Hanipah Z, Nasr EC, Bucak E, et al. Efficacy of adjuvant weight loss medication after bariatric surgery. Surg Obes Relat Dis. 2018;14(1):93–8. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soard.2017.10. 002.
- Toth AT, Gomez G, Shukla AP, et al. Weight loss medications in young adults after bariatric surgery for weight regain or inadequate weight loss: a multi-center study. Children (Basel). 2018;5(9). https://doi.org/10.3390/children5090116.
- Das SR, Everett BM, Birtcher KK, et al. Expert consensus decision pathway on novel therapies for cardiovascular risk reduction in patients with type 2 diabetes: a report of the American College of Cardiology Solution Set Oversight Committee. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2020;76(9):1117–45. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jacc.2020.05.037.
- Kelsey MD, Nelson AJ, Green JB, et al. Guidelines for cardiovascular risk reduction in patients with type 2 diabetes: JACC Guideline Comparison. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2022;79(18):1849– 57. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jacc.2022.02.046.
- Wang Y, Beydoun MA. The obesity epidemic in the United States--gender, age, socioeconomic, racial/ethnic, and geographic characteristics: a systematic review and meta-regression analysis. Epidemiol Rev. 2007;29:6–28. https://doi.org/10.1093/ epirev/mxm007.
- Lincoln KD, Nguyen AW. Race, Ethnicity, and age differences in social relationships and obesity: findings from the National Survey of American Life. J Aging Health. 2022;34(3):435–47. https://doi.org/10.1177/08982643221085900.
- Cheng YJ, Kanaya AM, Araneta MRG, et al. Prevalence of diabetes by race and ethnicity in the United States, 2011-2016. JAMA. 2019;322(24):2389–98. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama. 2019.19365.
- He J, Zhu Z, Bundy JD, et al. Trends in cardiovascular risk factors in US adults by race and ethnicity and socioeconomic status, 1999-2018. JAMA. 2021;326(13):1286–98. https://doi. org/10.1001/jama.2021.15187.
- Abou Saleh M, Alkhayyat M, Mansoor E, et al. The risk of vitamin D deficiency, osteoporosis, and fractures in acute pancreatitis. Pancreas. 2020;49(5):629–33. https://doi.org/10.1097/ MPA.000000000001538.
- Kim EY. Definition, mechanisms and predictors of weight loss failure after bariatric surgery. J Metab Bariatr Surg. 2022;11(2):39–48. https://doi.org/10.17476/jmbs.2022.11.2.39.
- 33. Angrisani L, Ferraro L, Santonicola A, et al. Long-term results of laparoscopic Roux-en-Y gastric bypass for morbid obesity: 105 patients with minimum follow-up of 15 years. Surg Obes Relat Dis. 2021;17(4):727–36. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soard. 2020.11.028.
- 34. Grönroos S, Helmiö M, Juuti A, et al. Effect of laparoscopic sleeve gastrectomy vs roux-en-y gastric bypass on weight loss and quality of life at 7 years in patients with morbid obesity: the SLEEVEPASS randomized clinical trial. JAMA Surg. 2021;156(2):137–46. https://doi.org/10.1001/jamasurg.2020. 5666.
- 35. Elangovan A, Shah R, Smith ZL. Pharmacotherapy for obesity-trends using a population level national database.

Obes Surg. 2021;31(3):1105–12. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s11695-020-04987-2.

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Springer Nature or its licensor (e.g. a society or other partner) holds exclusive rights to this article under a publishing agreement with the author(s) or other rightsholder(s); author self-archiving of the accepted manuscript version of this article is solely governed by the terms of such publishing agreement and applicable law.