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Development of Cancer after Bariatric Surgery

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Title: Development of Cancer after Bariatric Surgery

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Short title: Development of Cancer after Bariatric Surgery

1 **Abstract**

2 **Setting:** Although bariatric surgery has been associated with a reduction in risk of
3 obesity-related cancer, data on the effect of bariatric interventions on other cancers is
4 limited.

5 **Objectives:** This study aimed to examine the relationship between bariatric interventions
6 and the incidence of various cancers following bariatric surgery.

7 **Methods:** The New York Statewide Planning and Research Cooperative System
8 database was used to identify all adult patients diagnosed with obesity between 2006 and
9 2012 and patients who underwent bariatric procedures without pre-existing cancer
10 diagnosis, alcohol or tobacco use. Subsequent cancer diagnoses were captured up to
11 2016. Multivariable proportional sub-distribution hazard regression analysis was
12 performed to compare the risk of having cancer among obese patients with and without
13 bariatric interventions.

14 **Results:** We identified 71,000 patients who underwent bariatric surgery and 323,197
15 patients without a bariatric intervention. Patients undergoing bariatric surgery were less
16 likely to develop both obesity-related cancer (hazard ratio (HR) 0.91; 95% CI, 0.85-0.98;
17 $p=0.013$) and other cancers (HR 0.81; 95% CI, 0.74-0.89; $p<0.0001$). Patients undergoing
18 Roux-en-Y gastric bypass had a lower risk of developing cancers that are considered non-
19 obesity related (HR 0.59; 95% CI, 0.42-0.83; $p=0.0029$) compared to laparoscopic sleeve
20 gastrectomy.

21 **Conclusions:** Bariatric surgery is associated with a decreased risk of obesity-related
22 cancers. More significantly, we demonstrated the relationship between bariatric surgery
23 and the reduction of the risk of some previously designated non-obesity related cancers,

24 as well. Reclassification of non-obesity related cancers and expansion of bariatric
25 indications for reducing the risk of cancer may be warranted.

26

27 **Keywords:** Bariatric surgery; obesity-related cancer; non-obesity related cancer; obesity;

28 cancer

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47 INTRODUCTION

48 Obesity has emerged as an epidemic in America [1]; it was estimated that the
49 mean body weight of the average American has increased by nearly 10% in the two
50 decades since 1980, after adjusting for age and height [1]. At the same time, the
51 prevalence of clinical obesity has almost doubled [1]. There is no significant gender
52 difference in the prevalence of obesity [2]. The associated comorbidities such as
53 hypertension, type 2 diabetes (T2D), dyslipidemia, gall bladder disease, osteoarthritis,
54 etc. has been demonstrated in numerous studies [3-5]. The International Agency for
55 Research on Cancer (IARC) has also designated 14 types of cancer as obesity-related,
56 such as esophageal, gallbladder, liver, pancreatic, colorectal, thyroid, renal, prostate,
57 ovarian, endometrial and postmenopausal breast cancer in females [6-9]. It is estimated
58 that obesity alone accounts for 20% of all cancer causes [6]. Obesity is also found to be a
59 cause in 14% of cancer deaths in males and up to 20% of cancer deaths in females [7].

60 Bariatric surgery has become a popular treatment option for morbidly obese
61 patients due to its effectiveness, significant weight reduction and reduction in developing
62 comorbidities such as cardiovascular, endocrine and infectious disorders [10]. However,
63 studies evaluating the relationship between bariatric surgery and risk reduction of
64 different types of cancer are limited. Previous studies have demonstrated that insurance
65 status affects cancer-related health care quality and outcomes [11, 12], suggesting the
66 existence of health care disparity. Understanding the impact of insurance on cancer
67 incidence is particularly relevant given the need to expand health insurance in the US.
68 The purpose of this study was to determine if bariatric surgery is associated with a lower

69 incidence of obesity-related and non-obesity related cancer compared with a matched
70 cohort of obese patients with the same age, gender, race and ethnicity.

71

72 **METHODS**

73 We conducted a retrospective analysis study using data from the New York
74 Statewide Planning and Research Cooperative System (SPARCS) administrative
75 database. SPARCS is a longitudinal comprehensive data reporting system. Patient level
76 data such as patient characteristics, diagnoses and treatments, and services provided can
77 be collected. Data covering January 1st, 2006 through December 31st, 2012 was used to
78 identify all patients who had obesity diagnosis. The Institution Review Board of Stony
79 Brook University Hospital approved the study protocol.

80 International Classification of Diseases, ninth (ICD-9) revision codes for obesity
81 (278.00, 278.01, 278.02, 278.03) were used to identify obese adult patients. This included
82 all adult patients with body mass index (BMI) at or above 30. Exclusion criteria included
83 age < 18 years, missing identifiers, missing gender information, and duplicate records.
84 Two groups of patients – those who underwent bariatric surgery and those who did not
85 were defined using records with obesity diagnosis. Current Procedural Terminology
86 (CPT), ICD-9 codes for laparoscopic bariatric surgery procedures were then used to
87 identify bariatric surgery patients who underwent revision bariatric surgery (diagnosis of
88 V45.86), Laparoscopic Sleeve Gastrectomy (LSG) (43.82, 43.89 and 43775 with primary
89 diagnosis of 278.00-02), Roux-en-Y Gastric Bypass (RYGB) (44.38, 43644 and 43645
90 with primary diagnosis of 278.00-02) and Laparoscopic Adjustable Gastric Banding
91 (LAGB) (44.95 and 43770 with primary diagnosis of 278.00-02). Patients with at least

92 one primary or revisional bariatric surgery were included in the surgical group. Patients
93 from both the surgical and non-surgical group were followed starting from their earliest
94 records with an obesity diagnosis code during the study period. Patients having any
95 benign or malignant neoplasm diagnosis, tobacco use and alcohol abuse, identified by
96 ICD-9 codes, in their earliest records or at the time of bariatric surgery were also
97 excluded (Figure 1). Subsequent cancer diagnoses, identified by ICD-9 and ICD-10
98 codes, were captured up to 2016 (See Appendix A for specific diagnosis codes used). To
99 investigate gender-specific difference between the surgical and non-surgical groups,
100 gender-specific cancers such as prostate cancer (ICD-9 code: 185) were considered as
101 separate groups and were not included in the category of obesity-related cancer even
102 though they were designated as such according to IARC. Otherwise, cancer diagnoses
103 were considered “obesity-related” or “non-obesity related” following IARC
104 classification.

105 All bariatric surgery patients were matched to patients who did not have bariatric
106 surgery with identical race and ethnicity, gender and age for our analysis cohort. Chi-
107 square tests with exact P-values based on Monte Carlo simulation were utilized to
108 compare patients’ characteristics between bariatric surgery and non-bariatric surgery
109 patients, as well as those between bariatric surgery patients with different bariatric
110 surgery types. Univariate proportional sub-distribution hazards models (Fine-Gray
111 models) were utilized to examine the marginal association between potential factors
112 (surgical or non-surgical groups, patients’ characteristics, complications, comorbidities)
113 and the risk of obesity-related, non-obesity related and any type of cancer. Fine-Gray
114 models were utilized since death was treated as a competing risk event for cancer

115 development. Patients' group and other factors related to each outcome that were
116 significant (p -value <0.05) based on univariate analysis were further considered in
117 multivariable Fine-Gray models. A separate subgroup analysis was performed among
118 primary bariatric surgery patients to compare obesity-related, non-obesity related and any
119 types of cancer risks across the three bariatric surgery types. In Fine-Gray models, a
120 hazard ratio (HR) >1 indicated higher risk of cancer development, while an HR <1
121 indicated lower risk. Statistical analysis was performed using SAS 9.4 (SAS Institute,
122 Inc., Cary, NC) and significance level was set at 0.05.

123

124 **RESULTS**

125 Patients in the surgical and non-surgical groups

126 We identified 765,500 obese patients- 71,000 of them underwent bariatric surgery
127 and 694,500 of them did not. After matching for race and ethnicity, age and gender,
128 323,197 records from the non-surgical group were kept (See Appendix B for patient
129 characteristics in the surgical and non-surgical groups before and after matching). Thus,
130 in total, we used 394,197 records in analyses. Bariatric surgery patients were matched to
131 patients who did not have bariatric surgery in an approximately 1:5 ratio based on the
132 available number of records from the non-surgical group. The number of patients
133 collected per year between 2006 and 2012 is displayed in Appendix C. The number of in-
134 hospital deaths in surgical and non-surgical groups during the follow up period is
135 illustrated in Appendix D. Over 76% of the patients were female, based on surgical trends
136 and the matching algorithm (See Appendix E for patient characteristics in the surgical

137 and non-surgical groups). 1,448 (2.04%) surgical patients developed cancer compared
138 with 7,695 (2.38%) non-surgical patients.

139

140 Cancer incidence in surgical and non-surgical groups

141 The incidence of patients developing obesity-related cancer was 1.31% and 1.45%
142 for the surgical and non-surgical groups respectively. The incidence for non-obesity
143 related cancer was 0.80% and 1.01% for the surgical and non-surgical groups
144 respectively (Table 1). The estimated cumulative incidence of any types of cancers for
145 the surgical group was 0.3% (95% CI, 0.3%-0.3%) at 1 year, 2% (95% CI, 1.8%-2.1%) at
146 5 years and 5.3% (95% CI, 4.8%-5.7%) at 10 years, while that for the non-surgical group
147 was 0.6% (95% CI, 0.6%- 0.6%), 2.3% (95% CI, 2.3%- 2.4%) and 6.0% (95% CI, 5.8%-
148 6.2%) respectively (Figure 2). The estimated cumulative incidence of any type of cancer,
149 obesity-related cancer and non-obesity related cancer in the surgical and non-surgical
150 groups with respect to gender is illustrated in Appendix F.

151

152 Comparison of the risk of cancer development in surgical and non-surgical groups

153 Bariatric surgery patients were less likely to develop any type of cancer (HR 0.87;
154 95% CI, 0.82-0.92; $p < 0.0001$), obesity related (HR 0.91; 95% CI, 0.85-0.98; $p = 0.013$)
155 and non-obesity related cancer (HR 0.81; 95% CI, 0.74-0.89; $p < 0.0001$) than patients
156 who did not have bariatric surgery. Among obesity-related cancer, the reduction of liver
157 and pancreatic cancer incidence was the most strongly associated with bariatric
158 interventions. Among non-obesity-related cancer, the reduction of bronchus and lung
159 cancer incidence was the most strongly associated with bariatric interventions (Table 1).

160 For male specific cancer, there was no significant difference between bariatric surgery
161 and non-bariatric surgery patients in the development of prostate cancer (HR 1.15; 95%
162 CI, 0.98-1.35; p=0.0931) (See Appendix G for estimated hazard ratios).

163

164 Cancer incidence with different bariatric procedures

165 The incidence of developing post-operative cancer within each bariatric
166 procedural group are reported in Table 2. 1.29% of patients undergoing sleeve
167 gastrectomy, 1.65% of gastric bypass patients and 2.39% of gastric banding patients
168 developed any type of cancer. This was also the case for obesity-related cancer (LSG:
169 0.76%, RYGB: 1.07%, LAGB: 1.45%), non-obesity related cancer (LSG: 0.56%, RYGB:
170 0.64%, LAGB: 1.01%) and male specific cancer (LSG: 0.45%, RYGB: 0.58%, LAGB:
171 0.87%). Among obesity-related cancer, the reduction in the incidence of gallbladder and
172 extrahepatic bile duct cancer was the most strongly associated with laparoscopic sleeve
173 gastrectomy. The reduction of melanoma incidence was the most strongly associated with
174 laparoscopic sleeve gastrectomy among all non-obesity-related cancer.

175

176 Comparison of the risk of cancer development in different bariatric surgeries

177 Among the three different types of bariatric surgeries- laparoscopic sleeve
178 gastrectomy, Roux-en-Y gastric bypass and laparoscopic adjustable gastric banding, there
179 was no significant difference between the three in terms of the risk of postoperative
180 obesity-related cancer (Table 3) and male specific cancer. However, patients undergoing
181 Roux-en-Y gastric bypass had a lower risk of developing non-obesity related cancer (HR
182 0.59; 95% CI, 0.42-0.83; p=0.0029) (Table 4) and any type of cancer (HR 0.69; 95% CI,

183 0.55-0.86; $p=0.0002$) than laparoscopic sleeve gastrectomy. Patients undergoing Roux-
184 en-Y gastric bypass also had a lower risk of developing non-obesity related cancer (HR
185 0.78; 95% CI, 0.63-0.95; $p=0.0029$) and any type of cancer than laparoscopic adjustable
186 gastric banding (HR 0.80; 95% CI, 0.71-0.92; $p=0.0002$). There were no significant
187 differences between laparoscopic adjustable gastric banding and laparoscopic sleeve
188 gastrectomy in terms of the risk of postoperative non-obesity related cancer (HR 0.76;
189 95% CI, 0.55-1.06; $p=0.0029$) and any type of cancer (HR 0.86; 95% CI, 0.69-1.07;
190 $p=0.0002$). Within the surgical group, patients with commercial insurance had a lower
191 risk of developing obesity-related (HR 0.67; 95% CI, 0.53-0.84; $p=0.0057$), non-obesity-
192 related cancer (HR 0.71; 95% CI, 0.54-0.93; $p=0.098$) and any type of cancer (HR 0.64;
193 95% CI, 0.54-0.76; $p<0.0001$) compared to patients with Medicare.

194

195 **DISCUSSION**

196 Obesity is associated with multiple comorbidities including coronary artery
197 disease and vascular disorder, hypertension [13], T2D [14], and respiratory conditions
198 [15, 16]. It is also known to be a risk factor for developing many different types of cancer
199 [6-9]. Although several previous studies demonstrated that bariatric surgery decreases the
200 risk of obesity-related cancer [17-21], this is the first study to specifically examine the
201 efficacy of different types of bariatric interventions on reducing the risk of cancer, in
202 addition to investigating the effect of bariatric surgery on obesity-related, non-obesity
203 related and gender specific cancer.

204 Bariatric surgery has been shown to be associated with reduced risk of obesity-
205 related cancer [17-21]. The International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC)
206 designated obesity-related cancers include hepatocellular carcinoma, exocrine pancreatic,
207 gallbladder, cholangiocarcinoma, colorectal, renal, adenocarcinoma of the esophagus and
208 gastric cardia, prostate, postmenopausal breast, endometrial, ovarian, thyroid cancer and
209 multiple myeloma [22-25]. In an observational 2-cohort study by Christou, there was
210 significant and sustained weight loss as well as clinically significant reductions in the
211 incidence of breast, colorectal and pancreatic cancers following bariatric surgery [19].
212 The risk of obesity-related cancer after Roux-en-Y gastric bypass is lowered with a
213 hazard ratio of 0.62 (95% CI, 0.49-0.78; $P < 0.0001$) [17]. However, the risk reduction of
214 colorectal cancer after bariatric surgery does not appear to be so clear-cut. In a systemic
215 review by Afshar et al., bariatric surgery is associated with a 27% lower colorectal cancer
216 risk [26]. On the other hand, increased standardized incidence ratio of colorectal cancer
217 in bariatric surgery patients with longer follow-up was observed in a retrospective cohort
218 study by Derogar et al.; however, a similar pattern was not observed in obese patients
219 without surgery [27]. Our study appears to agree with the former, showing a lower
220 incidence of colorectal cancer in bariatric surgery patients when compared to non-
221 surgical patients ($p = 0.0043$).

222 Bariatric surgery also appears to reduce the risk of cancers not designated as
223 obesity-related per IARC. A recent publication by Schauer et al. demonstrated that
224 patients undergoing bariatric surgery had a 33% lower hazard risk of developing any type
225 of cancer (HR 0.67; 95% CI, 0.6, 0.74; $p < 0.001$) when compared to matched obese
226 patients who did not undergo bariatric surgery [20]. Schauer also demonstrated the

227 relationship between bariatric surgery and risk reduction in developing subsequent cancer
228 is stronger for obesity-related cancer than non-obesity related cancer [20]. In addition to
229 obesity-associated cancers designated by IARC, our study also evaluated non-obesity
230 related cancers. We strikingly noted the decrease in the risk of non-obesity related cancer
231 is more strongly associated with bariatric surgery than obesity-related cancer. We
232 propose that previously designated non-obesity related cancers may in fact be obesity-
233 related. This is supported by recent studies that have demonstrated an association
234 between bariatric surgery and a reduced risk of melanoma and skin cancer in general
235 [28], both of which were not previously classified as obesity-related cancers.

236 Various mechanisms have been proposed linking obesity to cancer. Chronic
237 hyperinsulinemia of obesity exposes tissue to tumorigenic effects of insulin receptors
238 found in (pre)neoplastic cells [29, 30]. Adiposity also influences the synthesis and
239 increased bioavailability of estrogen, androgens, and progesterone, each of which has
240 been linked to cancers through epidemiological studies [29, 30]. Chronic inflammation,
241 which has been associated with obesity, is another proposed mechanism. Two pro-
242 inflammatory pathways, c-Jun NH₂-terminal kinase (JNK) and I κ B kinase- β (IKK- β), are
243 increased in adiposity and may be part of the link between adipose tissue, inflammation,
244 and immune cells that play a role in cancer formation [30]. Chronic inflammation also
245 contributes to the development of insulin resistance – a previous proposed tumorigenic
246 mechanism [29, 31, 32].

247 The risk of gender specific cancer is also found to be reduced in multiple studies.
248 In an observational cohort study by Christou, bariatric surgery patients had lower
249 incidence of postoperative endometrial and breast cancers when compared to those who

250 did not have bariatric surgery [18]. Specifically, there is a 71% reduction in the risk of
251 developing uterine malignancy for obese women who had bariatric surgery compared to
252 those who did not [33]. A meta-analysis demonstrated similar findings, where the relative
253 risk of endometrial cancer is 0.4 for bariatric patients compared to obese control patients
254 [34]. A decreased risk of prostate cancer was noted in bariatric patients during follow-up,
255 however, it was not statistically significant [35]. Our study aligned with these previous
256 results; the risk of female-specific cancer was reduced after bariatric surgery [36] but
257 there was no significant difference in the risk reduction of prostate cancer in both groups.
258 Despite both arms of our study having increased female patients due to matching
259 algorithms, we still had 15,219 and 76,095 male patients in the surgical and non-surgical
260 groups respectively. Since most gender specific cancers are also obesity-related, it is
261 expected to show similar pattern as those found in obesity-related cancer. In addition to
262 gender specific effects, our study showed that patients with commercial insurance
263 appeared to have lower risk of developing cancer when compared to patients with
264 Medicare. This might be attributed to enhanced screening in commercial insurance
265 holders. Further study is essential to identify the reason behind the healthcare disparity
266 associated with insurance status.

267 A limited number of studies compared the different types of bariatric
268 interventions in decreasing the risk of cancer. The underlying mechanisms of bariatric
269 intervention on cancer risk reduction may involve both weight-dependent and weight-
270 independent effects. From other published studies it is well known that with any bariatric
271 procedure, on average, sustained weight loss is achieved through caloric restriction [37].
272 Other possible mechanisms include improvement of insulin resistance and glucose

273 metabolism, which attenuate metabolic syndrome, decreased inflammation and oxidative
274 stress, improved regulation of sex hormones, gastrointestinal hormone ghrelin, improved
275 cellular energy homeostasis and increased energetic efficiency [38]. Our study showed
276 that Roux-en-Y gastric bypass appears to be a better approach compared to laparoscopic
277 adjustable gastric banding and laparoscopic sleeve gastrectomy in terms of cancer risk
278 reduction. Patients undergoing Roux-en-Y gastric bypass has also been shown to have
279 greater weight loss compared to laparoscopic adjustable gastric banding and laparoscopic
280 sleeve gastrectomy [39]. Assuming the patient population of our study is similar to
281 previous studies and follows average weight loss outcomes, the observation of lower
282 cancer risk in patients undergoing Roux-en-Y gastric bypass may be attributed by the
283 greater body weight loss achieved through Roux-en-Y gastric bypass [39]. However, it is
284 also suggested that rectal mucosal changes may occur in relation to malabsorptive effects
285 of Roux-en-Y gastric bypass, which can possibly increase the risk of colorectal cancer
286 after surgery [27]. This implies that it is important to compare the effect of different types
287 of bariatric interventions on the risk of post-surgical cancer occurrence.

288 The rigor of this retrospective study is limited by the use of administrative data.
289 Clinical information such as BMI before and after bariatric surgery is not available. BMI
290 is a significant variable that can affect the assessment of surgery outcomes. There appears
291 to be some association between BMI and the risk of multiple cancers [40-42]. Therefore,
292 preoperative and postoperative BMI is an important determinant of cancer risk.
293 According to George et al., the use of the ICD-9 diagnosis code for obesity was shown to
294 identify morbidly obese patients easily; many patients with morbid obesity had ICD-9
295 code for obesity, but not specifically as morbid obesity used in clinical databases [43].

296 Moreover, the effect of morbid obesity defined using ICD-9 codes and BMI on
297 complications were similar [43]. This suggests that the use of ICD-9 codes to identify
298 patients with obesity may be comparable to using BMI. However, the use of diagnosis
299 codes limits the accuracy and severity of the diagnosis. Esophageal adenocarcinoma is
300 associated with obesity; however, the use of diagnosis codes alone will detect both
301 esophageal adenocarcinoma and esophageal squamous cell carcinoma but not specifically
302 esophageal adenocarcinoma. Since there are many non-obesity related cancers, only
303 certain non-obesity related cancers were investigated and included in this study, which
304 may not be accurate to generalize. The use of administrative data also gives rise to the
305 potential of miscoding. Selection bias can exist; patients who undergo bariatric
306 procedures may have large variations in terms of lifestyle and different social factors,
307 which cannot be accounted for in this study. However, the large sample size is the
308 strength of our study. Since New York SPARCS database capture records across all
309 participating hospitals within New York State, it is an ideal database to capture patients
310 undergoing bariatric procedures. Patients each have unique identifiers and as such the
311 true incidence of any cancer diagnosis managed at any hospital within the state can be
312 captured, not limited to the hospital for the original bariatric procedure. Administrative
313 data was also used for some other large cancer incidence studies [10, 18, 20]. Although
314 the use of such a large population-based database is limited in terms of the clinical
315 information, it is the only way to provide some insight into low count events, such as the
316 development of cancer.

317 Since our study was observational and retrospective in nature, it is not a proof of a
318 direct effect but rather allows for the novel demonstration of a possible relationship

319 between bariatric surgery and reduced risk of subsequent cancer development. Bariatric
320 surgery is not to be considered as a treatment for cancer, but rather a possible intervention
321 to prevent development of cancer. This is especially important in certain cancer-prone
322 populations, such as those who have a strong family history of cancer. Therefore, the
323 argument for expanded coverage for bariatric surgery to include those who are
324 overweight or obese and at an increased risk of cancer should be explored.

325

326 **CONCLUSION**

327 Our study confirms bariatric surgery is associated with a reduction in the risk of obesity-
328 related cancers. More importantly, the evidence suggest bariatric surgery is also
329 associated with a reduction in the risk of some previously designated non-obesity related
330 cancers as well. This significant finding may warrant further investigation and possible
331 reclassification of non-obesity related cancers to obesity-related. No significant
332 association between bariatric surgery and male-specific cancer was noted. The present
333 study also provides evidence supporting the expansion of bariatric surgery coverage to
334 include overweight and obese patients who are at an increased risk of cancer.

335

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477 **Table 1.** Incidence of cancer development by surgical and non-surgical group

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479 **Table 2.** Incidence of cancer development by primary bariatric surgery types

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484 **Table 3.** Estimated hazard ratios of explanatory variables and their 95% confidence
485 intervals for post-operative obesity-related cancer development based on a multivariable
486 Fine-Gray model

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491 **Table 4.** Estimated hazard ratios of explanatory variables and their 95% confidence
492 intervals for post-operative non-obesity related cancer development based on a
493 multivariable Fine-Gray model

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498 **Figure 1.** Cohort consort for surgical and non-surgical controls

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504 **Figure 2.** Cumulative incidence of obesity-related, non-obesity related and any types of
505 cancer by patients' group

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Table 1. Incidence of cancer development by surgical and non-surgical group

Cancer type	Total (N=394,197)	Non-surgical group (N=323,197)	Surgical group (N=71,000)	P- values*
Any type of cancer				
Any type of cancer	9143 (2.32%)	7695 (2.38%)	1448 (2.04%)	<.0001
Obesity related cancer				
Obesity related cancer	5635 (1.43%)	4702 (1.45%)	933 (1.31%)	0.0042
Malignant neoplasm of esophagus	223 (0.06%)	191 (0.06%)	32 (0.05%)	0.1547
Liver cancer	368 (0.09%)	324 (0.10%)	44 (0.06%)	0.0025
Pancreatic cancer	555 (0.14%)	481 (0.15%)	74 (0.10%)	0.0041
Cancer of the gallbladder, extrahepatic bile duct	172 (0.04%)	138 (0.04%)	34 (0.05%)	0.5489
Kidney cancer	1131 (0.29%)	937 (0.29%)	194 (0.27%)	0.4519
Colorectal cancer	1574 (0.40%)	1334 (0.41%)	240 (0.34%)	0.0043
Gastric cancer	136 (0.03%)	120 (0.04%)	16 (0.02%)	0.0580
Multiple Myeloma	386 (0.10%)	322 (0.10%)	64 (0.09%)	0.4642
Thyroid cancer	1418 (0.36%)	1140 (0.35%)	278 (0.39%)	0.1177
Non-obesity related cancer				
Non-obesity related cancer	3830 (0.97%)	3265 (1.01%)	565 (0.80%)	<.0001
Bronchus and Lung cancer	1561 (0.40%)	1362 (0.42%)	199 (0.28%)	<.0001
Heart cancer	5 (0.00%)	5 (0.00%)	0 (0.00%)	0.5874
Head and neck squamous cell carcinoma	149 (0.04%)	128 (0.04%)	21 (0.03%)	0.2133
Melanoma of skin	515 (0.13%)	410 (0.13%)	105 (0.15%)	0.1601
Non-Hodgkin Lymphoma	1031 (0.26%)	867 (0.27%)	164 (0.23%)	0.0783
Bladder Cancer	698 (0.18%)	603 (0.19%)	95 (0.13%)	0.0025

*: P-values were based on Chi-squared test with exact p-value from Monte Carlo simulation.

Table 2. Incidence of cancer development by primary bariatric surgery types

Cancer type	Total (N=58,127)	Gastric Band (N=19,777)	Gastric Bypass (N=30,358)	Sleeve Gastrectomy (N=7,992)	P-values*
Any type of cancer					
Any type of cancers	1075 (1.85%)	472 (2.39%)	500 (1.65%)	103 (1.29%)	<.0001
Obesity related cancer					
Obesity related cancer	673 (1.16%)	287 (1.45%)	325 (1.07%)	61 (0.76%)	<.0001
Malignant neoplasm of esophagus	21 (0.04%)	8 (0.04%)	10 (0.03%)	3 (0.04%)	0.9570
Liver cancer	31 (0.05%)	18 (0.09%)	11 (0.04%)	2 (0.03%)	0.0166
Pancreatic cancer	48 (0.08%)	19 (0.10%)	27 (0.09%)	2 (0.03%)	0.1465
Gallbladder, extrahepatic bile duct	25 (0.04%)	16 (0.08%)	9 (0.03%)	0 (0.00%)	0.0024
Kidney cancer	148 (0.25%)	65 (0.33%)	70 (0.23%)	13 (0.16%)	0.0221
Colorectal cancer	163 (0.28%)	70 (0.35%)	77 (0.25%)	16 (0.20%)	0.0399
Gastric cancer	11 (0.02%)	5 (0.03%)	5 (0.02%)	1 (0.01%)	0.7033
Multiple Myeloma	49 (0.08%)	22 (0.11%)	22 (0.07%)	5 (0.06%)	0.2649
Thyroid cancer	209 (0.36%)	81 (0.41%)	106 (0.35%)	22 (0.28%)	0.2169
Non-obesity related cancer					
Non-obesity related cancer	438 (0.75%)	199 (1.01%)	194 (0.64%)	45 (0.56%)	<.0001
Bronchus and Lung cancer	153 (0.26%)	72 (0.36%)	67 (0.22%)	14 (0.18%)	0.0023
Head and neck squamous cell carcinoma	18 (0.03%)	8 (0.04%)	8 (0.03%)	2 (0.03%)	0.7258
Melanoma of skin	83 (0.14%)	45 (0.23%)	32 (0.11%)	6 (0.08%)	0.0004
Non-Hodgkin Lymphoma	127 (0.22%)	57 (0.29%)	51 (0.17%)	19 (0.24%)	0.0175
Bladder Cancer	76 (0.13%)	26 (0.13%)	43 (0.14%)	7 (0.09%)	0.4924
*: P-values were based on Chi-squared test with exact p-value from Monte Carlo simulation.					

Table 3. Estimated hazard ratios of explanatory variables and their 95% confidence intervals for post-operative obesity-related cancer development based on a multivariable Fine-Gray model

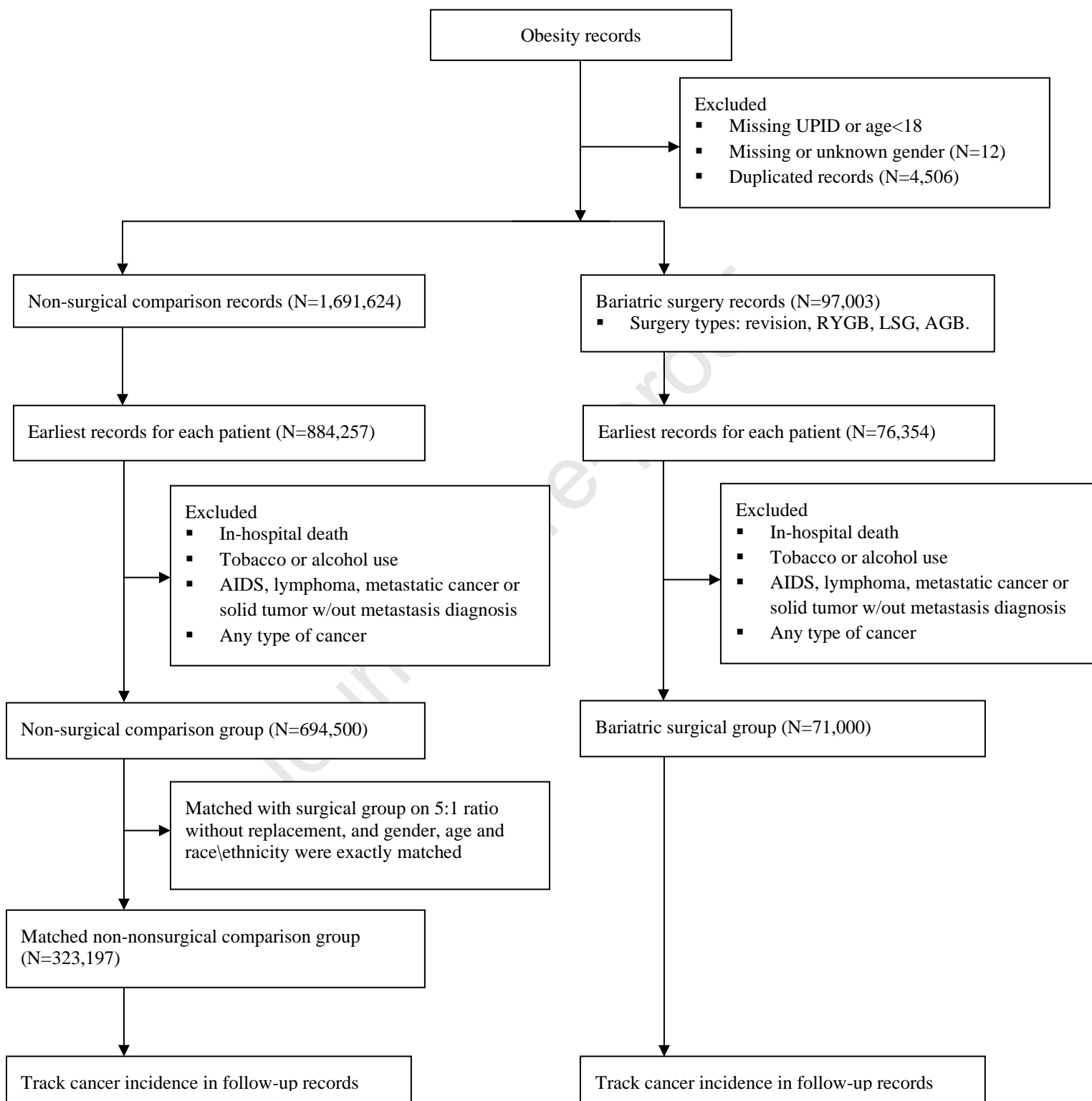
Variable	Level	Hazard Ratio with 95% Confidence Interval	P-value*
Surgery type	Gastric Band vs Gastric Bypass	1.203 (1.019, 1.419)	0.0556
	Gastric Band vs Sleeve Gastrectomy	0.957 (0.720, 1.273)	
	Gastric Bypass vs Sleeve Gastrectomy	0.796 (0.600, 1.056)	
Gender	Female vs Male	0.809 (0.680, 0.963)	0.0169
Age (continuous)	Unit=1 year	1.043 (1.034, 1.052)	<.0001
Race/ethnicity	Asian, non-Hispanic vs Black, non-Hispanic	3.134 (1.260, 7.796)	0.0807
	Asian, non-Hispanic vs Hispanic	2.866 (1.153, 7.125)	
	Asian, non-Hispanic vs Other	2.612 (1.059, 6.441)	
	Asian, non-Hispanic vs White, non-Hispanic	2.453 (1.017, 5.917)	
	Black, non-Hispanic vs Hispanic	0.914 (0.644, 1.298)	
	Black, non-Hispanic vs Other	0.833 (0.599, 1.159)	
	Black, non-Hispanic vs White, non-Hispanic	0.783 (0.598, 1.025)	
	Hispanic vs Other	0.912 (0.654, 1.271)	
	Hispanic vs White, non-Hispanic	0.856 (0.652, 1.124)	
	Other vs White, non-Hispanic	0.939 (0.741, 1.190)	
Insurance	Commercial vs Medicaid	0.878 (0.577, 1.335)	0.0057
	Commercial vs Medicare	0.668 (0.533, 0.839)	
	Commercial vs Other or unknown	0.845 (0.541, 1.321)	
	Medicaid vs Medicare	0.762 (0.476, 1.219)	
	Medicaid vs Other or unknown	0.963 (0.531, 1.747)	
	Medicare vs Other or unknown	1.264 (0.777, 2.058)	
Congestive heart failure	Yes vs No	1.982 (1.093, 3.595)	0.0243
Hypothyroidism	Yes vs No	1.285 (1.034, 1.596)	0.0236
Coagulopathy	Yes vs No	2.589 (1.200, 5.586)	0.0153

*: P-value was the type-3 p-value from multivariable Fine-Gray model.

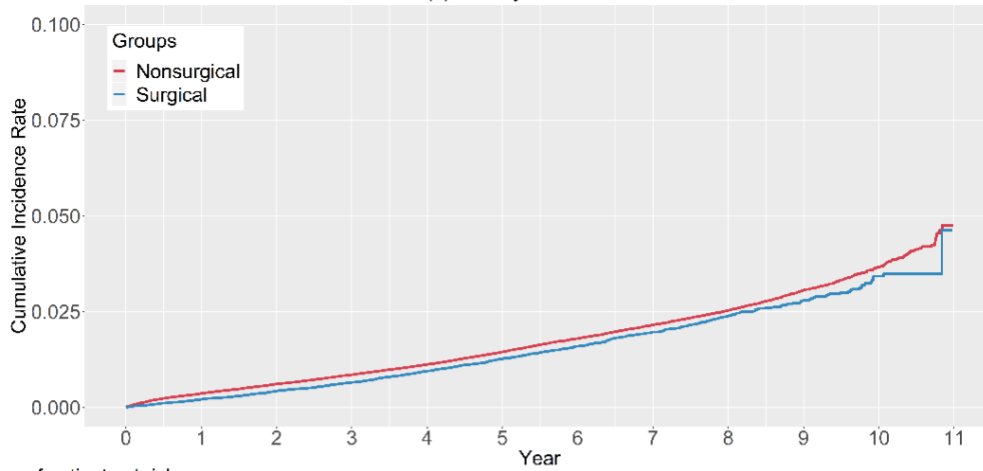
Table 4. Estimated hazard ratios of explanatory variables and their 95% confidence intervals for post-operative non-obesity related cancer development based on a multivariable Fine-Gray model

Variable	Level	Hazard Ratio with 95% Confidence Interval	P-value*
Patients' groups	Surgical vs Non-surgical	0.819 (0.751, 0.893)	<.0001
Age (continuous)	Unit=1 year	1.074 (1.070, 1.077)	<.0001
Gender	Female vs Male	0.751 (0.704, 0.801)	<.0001
Race/ethnicity	Asian, non-Hispanic vs Black, non-Hispanic	0.818 (0.529, 1.265)	<.0001
	Asian, non-Hispanic vs Hispanic	0.923 (0.592, 1.438)	
	Asian, non-Hispanic vs Other	0.689 (0.445, 1.068)	
	Asian, non-Hispanic vs White, non-Hispanic	0.483 (0.314, 0.744)	
	Black, non-Hispanic vs Hispanic	1.128 (0.979, 1.299)	
	Black, non-Hispanic vs Other	0.842 (0.743, 0.954)	
	Black, non-Hispanic vs White, non-Hispanic	0.590 (0.535, 0.650)	
	Hispanic vs Other	0.747 (0.643, 0.868)	
	Hispanic vs White, non-Hispanic	0.523 (0.460, 0.595)	
	Other vs White, non-Hispanic	0.701 (0.631, 0.779)	
Insurance	Commercial vs Medicaid	0.847 (0.765, 0.937)	<.0001
	Commercial vs Medicare	0.856 (0.792, 0.926)	
	Commercial vs Other or unknown	1.042 (0.911, 1.191)	
	Medicaid vs Medicare	1.012 (0.898, 1.139)	
	Medicaid vs Other or unknown	1.230 (1.049, 1.443)	
	Medicare vs Other or unknown	1.216 (1.052, 1.407)	
Alcohol abuse	Yes vs No	1.165 (0.972, 1.397)	0.0989
Tobacco use	Yes vs No	2.143 (1.986, 2.311)	<.0001
Any other comorbidities	Yes vs No	1.063 (0.978, 1.155)	0.1516

*: P-value was type-3 p-value from multivariable Fine-Gray hazards model.



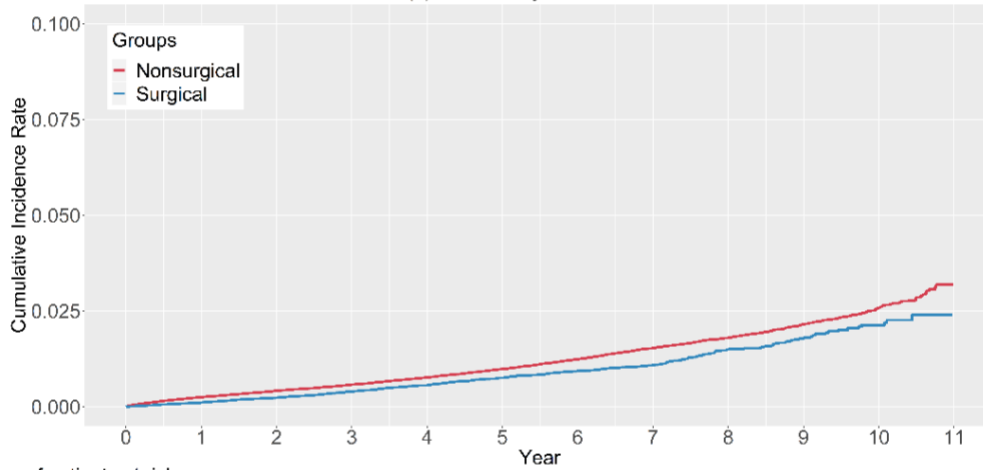
(a) Obesity related cancer



Number of patients at risk:

Nonsurgical:	323197	261357	242801	221692	191088	142309	98302	70477	46623	26959	10756	1
Surgical:	71000	57847	54392	50248	43889	33970	25240	17570	10940	5602	1706	0

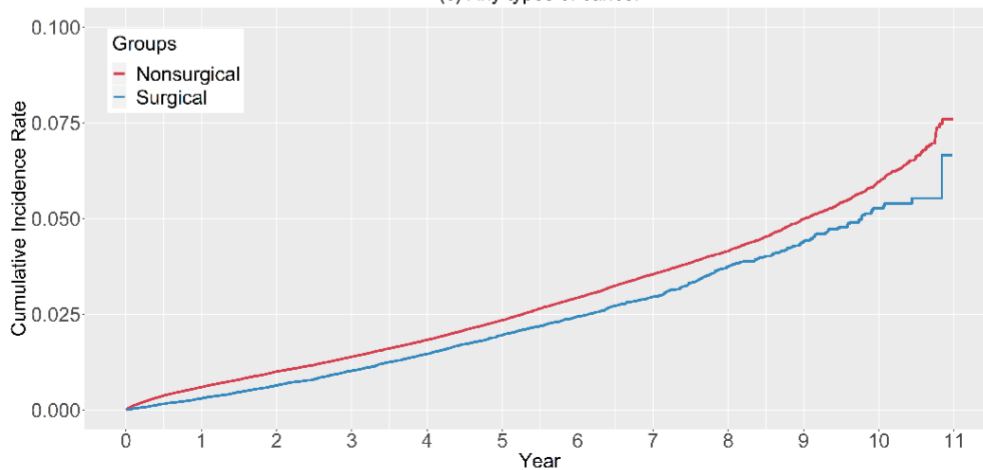
(b) Non-obesity related cancer



Number of patients at risk:

Nonsurgical:	323197	261655	243272	222267	191707	142926	98815	70892	46935	27164	10846	1
Surgical:	71000	57901	54493	50368	44049	34113	25365	17665	10987	5616	1718	0

(c) Any types of cancer



Number of patients at risk:

Nonsurgical:	323197	260849	242042	220762	190036	141368	97510	69791	46116	26634	10586	1
Surgical:	71000	57796	54293	50091	43704	33781	25076	17435	10824	5528	1685	0

Highlights:

- The risk of cancer after bariatric surgery for patients with obesity were studied
- Bariatric Surgery patients had a lower risk of cancer than non-surgery patients
- Roux-en-Y gastric bypass patients had the lowest risk of any type of cancer
- Expansion of bariatric indications for reducing the risk of cancer may be warranted

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