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biliopancreatic diversion with or without duodenal switch, are the only current therapies that provide substantial and durable weight loss. Recently published 15-year outcome data for LAGB show a similar sustained long-term weight loss to that achieved with RYGB [1]. No similar long-term efficacy data is available for sleeve gastrectomy. Given that these procedures provide such an important part of the

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68 antiobesity arsenal, it is essential to better understand the biological mechanisms that underpin their success. This is 69 not only critical to their optimal use but may help to identify 70 ways of achieving satiety and weight loss without surgery. 71 In the case of the LAGB, there is a longstanding, 72 erroneous assumption that the procedure acts solely by 73 restricting the transit of food into the stomach; this view of 74 a purely restrictive mechanism is now considered overly 75 76 simplistic [2,3]. In a randomized, blinded, crossover trial, the satiety level of LAGB patients was measured with or without 77 fluid in the band. Optimal adjustment was associated with 78 significantly higher levels of satiety during a fasted period 79 and earlier postprandial satiation levels than with uninflated 80 81 bands [4]. Although these data are inconsistent with restriction being the sole explanation for band-induced satiety, they 82 leave open the possibility that the essential conduit between 83 gut and brain is neural and/or humoral interaction. 84

To date, despite repeated attempts to find a humoral 85 contribution to the effectiveness of the band, this has not 86 been forthcoming in measurements made in patient cohorts, 87 88 although there are isolated instances where gut hormones such as peptide YY (PYY) have been shown to be elevated 89 postprandially after AGB surgery [5]. The most cogent 90 explanation for the satiety-inducing effects of AGB 91 involves the activation of stretch receptors, particularly in 92 93 the small pouch of the stomach proximal to the inflated 94 band [6]. This is supported by data derived from the authors' rodent model of the AGB [7], showing that band 95 96 inflation results in activation of neuronal populations in the nucleus of the solitary tract (NTS) consistent with the 97 recruitment of mechanosensitive vagal fibers [8]. This has 98 99 subsequently been confirmed by others [9].

To better delineate the mechanisms underlying the 100 success of the AGB, an obese rodent AGB model, in which 101 vagal sensory fibers were either left intact or eliminated with 102 capsaicin, was used in the present study. It was hypothesized 103 104 that vagal sensory fibers are critical to the induction of satiety and hence weight loss after AGB surgery. 105

Methods 108

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Animals

Adult male Sprague Dawley rats (n = 99, 4-16 weeks, 111 Animal Resources Centre, Perth, Western Australia) were 112 113 housed under a 12-hr:12-hr light:dark cycle and temperature-controlled environment (24°C-25°C). Rats 114 had ad libitum access to either standard laboratory chow 115 (9% kcal from lipids) or high-fat diet (45% kcal from lipids, 116 SF04-001; Specialty Feeds, Western Australia, Australia) 117 and water, unless specified. All experimental procedures 118 119 were approved by the Monash University animal ethics committee and performed in accordance with the Australian 120 Code of Practice for the Care and Use of Animals for 121 Scientific Purpose, 8th edition 2013. 122

Implantation and inflation of the adjustable gastric band

The AGB used throughout these experiments is a 125 commercially available vascular occluder (OC14, In Vivo 126 Metric, Healdsburg, CA) that has features similar to what is 127 used in human surgeries and has been described previously 128 [7,8]. During postmortem examination, the position and 129 level of inflation of the AGB was verified. 130

Impact of band inflation on metabolic parameters

133 To assess the effect of band inflation on a number of 134 metabolic parameters, 4-week-old male Sprague Dawley 135 rats (n = 21) were placed on a high-fat diet for 14 weeks. At 136 the end of the 14 weeks, rats were randomly assigned to 137 AGB or sham surgery, which was followed by a 7-day 138 recovery period. The sham surgery involved all aspects of 139 the AGB other than fitting the band. 140

Weight and food intake. Weight and food intake were recorded throughout the 75-day treatment period.

Body composition. Total lean, fat, and bone mass were assessed using dual energy x-ray absorptiometry (DEXA) both before surgery and capsaicin/vehicle treatment and at the end of the 75-day treatment period. The fat mass in the individual depots was determined by dissection postmortem at the end of the treatment period where retroperitoneal white adipose tissue (rWAT) and epididymal white adipose 151 tissue (eWAT) were weighed as representative abdominal fat pads.

Capsaicin treatment and assessment of the efficacy of the lesion using a cholecystokinin challenge and postmortem analyses of calretinin immunohistochemistry in the myenteric plexus of the stomach

Systemic administration. Capsaicin (>98% grade; Sigma, 159 St. Louis, MO) was dissolved in a sterile vehicle consisting 160 of Tween 80 (10%), ethanol (10%), and .9% NaCl (80%) to 161 achieve a capsaicin concentration of 50 mg/mL. Capsaicin 162 (or vehicle) was administered in a series of 3 doses (25, 50, 163 and 50 mg/kg) that were injected intraperitoneally over a 164 48-hour period. Each injection was made under isoflurane 165 (Baxter Healthcare, New South Wales, Australia) anesthesia 166 with .2 mL i.p., atropine sulphate (15 mg/mL saline Sigma-167 Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) administered 10 minutes before 168 injections. Artificial respiration was required in some rats 169 that experienced respiratory arrest immediately after the first 170 injection of capsaicin. These procedures were adopted from 171 published protocols [10,11] and personal communication Qd 72 with RC Ritter. Rats were allowed a minimum 2-week 173 recovery period after capsaicin or vehicle treatment. Effi-174 cacy of the capsaicin treatment was subsequently assessed 175 by testing the ability of the anorexigenic hormone chol-176 ecystokinin (CCK) to reduce food intake (see below). 177

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