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# Altered neural inhibition responses to food cues after Roux-en-Y Gastric Bypass

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**Running title:** RYGB modulates neural inhibition to food cues

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# 1 Abstract

2 **Background:** Roux-en-Y gastric bypass (RYGB) surgery is a highly effective weight-loss intervention  
3 that often reduces preference and intake of high-energy foods. Research into the neural mechanisms  
4 behind this shift has mainly focused on reward processing of food cues. However, the ability to  
5 successfully control food intake and thereby weight-loss also depends on inhibitory control capacity. We  
6 investigated whether RYGB leads to alterations in neural inhibitory control in response to food cues.

7 **Methods:** A food-specific go/no-go task with pictures of high-energy (desserts) and low-energy foods  
8 (vegetables), was used to assess neural inhibition responses before and after RYGB with functional  
9 magnetic resonance imaging. Data from 18 morbidly obese patients (15 females; age  $41 \pm 11$  years; BMI  
10  $42 \pm 4$  kg/m<sup>2</sup> before; BMI  $36 \pm 4$  kg/m<sup>2</sup> after) were analysed. Pre- and post-RYGB BOLD fMRI responses  
11 were compared for response inhibition towards high- and low-energy foods. Participants were tested in a  
12 satiated state.

13 **Results:** Response inhibition to high-energy foods was associated with increased activation of the right  
14 lateral prefrontal cortex (PFC), right medial PFC, dorsolateral PFC, right middle cingulate cortex and the  
15 right inferior frontal operculum (involved in inhibitory control), after compared to before surgery.  
16 Response inhibition to low-energy foods elicited diminished post- compared to pre-surgery responses in  
17 the left superior temporal pole, right parahippocampal gyrus and right hypothalamus (involved in  
18 metabolic control).

19 **Conclusion:** Neural changes indicate improved response inhibition towards high-energy food cues,  
20 altered influence of metabolic control during response inhibition toward low-energy food cues and a more  
21 positive attitude to both high-energy and low-energy food after RYGB. Alterations in neural circuits  
22 involved in inhibitory control, satiety signalling and reward processing may contribute to effective  
23 weight-loss after RYGB.

## 24 Keywords

25 Bariatric surgery; weight-loss; go/no-go; food preferences; fMRI; impulsivity; inhibitory control

26

## 27 Introduction

28 Roux-en-Y gastric bypass (RYGB) patients frequently show decreased preferences and consumption of  
29 high-energy foods after surgery, which are associated with long-term weight reduction (Kenler, Brolin, &  
30 Cody, 1990; Laurenius et al., 2013; Ochner et al., 2011; Sjöström, 2013; Thirlby, Bahiraei, Randall, &  
31 Drewnoski, 2006). The underlying mechanism of this decreased preference for high-energy foods is yet  
32 unclear. Most studies to date focused on altered reward processing, but changes in inhibitory control may  
33 also play an important role. It has been suggested that people with low inhibitory control are more prone  
34 to overeating and hence to developing overweight or obesity (Guerrieri, Nederkoorn, & Jansen, 2008; C.  
35 Nederkoorn, Guerrieri, Havermans, Roefs, & Jansen, 2009; Weygandt et al., 2015). Suppression of  
36 automatic tendencies to choose highly rewarding energy-dense foods over low energy-dense foods could  
37 help to decrease caloric intake, which contributes to successful weight-loss.

38 How well we are able to control our impulses in part determines how much and what we consume.  
39 Decreased inhibitory control is assumed to increase the odds of eating in the absence of hunger,  
40 especially in a tempting and food-rich environment (Boutelle & Bouton, 2015; Meule, Lutz, Vögele, &  
41 Kübler, 2014; Volkow, Wang, & Baler, 2011), and could eventually lead to weight gain. Overeating and  
42 obesity have been associated with higher impulsivity, both in self-reported and behavioural measures  
43 (Bongers et al., 2015; Dykes, Brunner, Martikainen, & Wardle, 2004; Chantal Nederkoorn, Smulders,  
44 Havermans, Roefs, & Jansen, 2006; Rydén et al., 2003; Stoeckel, Cox, Cook, & Weller, 2007; Vainik,  
45 Dagher, Dubé, & Fellows, 2013). Furthermore, individuals that were unsuccessful in regulating their  
46 weight show decreased inhibitory control (Houben, Nederkoorn, & Jansen, 2012) while behavioural  
47 responses of successful weight-loss maintainers indicate better inhibition to high-energy foods (Phelan et  
48 al., 2011). The extent of inhibitory control seems to influence the ability to maintain weight-loss after  
49 intervention. RYGB surgery is widely viewed as the most effective method for long-term weight loss in  
50 morbidly obese individuals (Rubino et al., 2004). Previous studies into neural responsivity after RYGB or  
51 other types of weight loss surgery have mainly focused on (alterations in) reward processing during  
52 presentation of high-energy food cues (Bruce et al., 2012; Ochner et al., 2011; Ochner, Laferrère, et al.,  
53 2012). In order to better understand successful weight-loss regulation upon RYGB, it is important to  
54 consider changes in inhibitory control processes as well (Price, Higgs, & Lee, 2015).

55 Previous studies showed that people who were attempting to lose weight displayed increased activation  
56 of the inferior frontal gyrus and anterior insula/frontal operculum in response to pictures of high-energy  
57 foods (Smeets, Kroese, Evers, & De Ridder, 2013). These areas are involved in inhibitory control. Also,  
58 successful weight-loss maintainers show greater activation to food cues in prefrontal regions (superior-,

59 middle frontal gyrus) associated with inhibitory control (McCaffery et al., 2009). Batterink et al.  
60 (Batterink, Yokum, & Stice, 2010) have introduced a food-specific go/no-go task to assess neural  
61 measures of response inhibition to high-energy food items. In their study, a higher BMI was related to  
62 less activation during no-go trials in frontal inhibitory regions, including superior- and middle frontal  
63 gyrus, ventromedial- and medial prefrontal cortex, and orbitofrontal cortex. A higher BMI was also  
64 associated with more activation during no-go trials in the temporal operculum. Increased understanding  
65 of the (neuro)biological mechanisms involved in inhibitory control is necessary to improve the outcome of  
66 weight-loss interventions.

67 With this study we aimed to determine whether RYGB surgical intervention in morbidly obese patients  
68 results in altered neural activation underlying response inhibition, using a food specific go/no-go task.  
69 Participants were tested in a satiated state to better understand alterations in situations of overeating.  
70 We hypothesized that participants would be better able to suppress responses to high-energy items after  
71 RYGB surgery, as reflected in changes in neural responses related to inhibitory control, while behavioural  
72 and neural responses to low-energy items would remain similar.

## 73 Methods

### 74 *Overall design*

75 This study had a 2x2x2 within-subject design, including the factors time point (pre- and post-RYGB),  
76 stimulus (dessert/vegetable), and task-instruction (Go/No-Go).

### 77 *Participants*

78 Twenty morbidly obese individuals participated in the food-specific go/no-go task, pre- and post- RYGB  
79 surgery. All participants were enlisted to undergo RYGB surgery at Rijnstate hospital, Arnhem, the  
80 Netherlands. Requirements for the surgery were: Body Mass Index (BMI) of  $>40 \text{ kg/m}^2$  or  $>35 \text{ kg/m}^2$   
81 with co-morbidity that was expected to improve after surgically-induced weight loss, long-lasting obesity  
82 ( $>5$  years), proven failed attempts to lose weight in a conventional way, intention to adhere to a  
83 postoperative follow-up programme. Individuals were not considered for surgery when they were  
84 pregnant or lactating, had psychiatric disorders, alcohol or drug dependency, life threatening conditions  
85 or when they were dependent on the care of others. Patients were screened at Rijnstate hospital. All  
86 participants were right-handed, non-smoking, and did not have conditions that conflicted with MR safety  
87 or would cause artefacts in the MR images (e.g. claustrophobic, irremovable ferromagnetic objects in or  
88 on their body, pacemaker), had a normal sense of smell (scoring  $\geq 10$  on the identification part of the  
89 Sniffin' Sticks (Hummel, Kobal, Gudziol, & Mackay-Sim, 2007), were not vegetarian and did not have  
90 allergies or intolerances to the foods used in the study. Participants received financial compensation for

91 their contribution. All participants provided written informed consent before entering the study. The  
92 protocol was approved by the Medical Ethical Committee of Wageningen University (NL45837.081.13)  
93 and was executed in accordance with the ethical principles of the Declaration of Helsinki of 1975, as  
94 revised in 2013. The study was registered on clinicaltrials.gov as NCT02068001.

95

#### 96 *Experimental procedures*

97 Participants visited the test facilities at three occasions. First, they were familiarized with the MRI test  
98 environment and the experimental task in a dummy MRI scanner at Wageningen University (training  
99 session). After the trainings session, actual measurements were performed in two identical test sessions.  
100 The first test session took place on average 3.3 (SD 1.8) weeks before, and the second test session took  
101 place on average 9.3 (range 8-12 weeks, SD 1.2) weeks after RYGB surgery. Participants were instructed  
102 to refrain from eating and drinking anything but water and weak tea in the three hours before the test  
103 sessions. Upon arrival at hospital Gelderse Vallei (Ede, the Netherlands), blood samples were taken for  
104 analysis of plasma levels of endocannabinoids and ghrelin (data reported elsewhere). Participants were  
105 tested in comfortably full state, to mimic a context of eating in the absence of hunger. We provided a  
106 standardized meal that was adapted to pre- or post-surgery conditions in order to match the hunger  
107 states of the participants before and after surgery. Participants first drank orange juice, and after a small  
108 break they consumed a standardized meal consisting of bread roll(s), cheese, ham and butter (see  
109 Supplementary Table 1). Following meal consumption, participants waited for 15 minutes. In order to  
110 assess changes in general inhibition participants filled in the 24-item BIS/BAS questionnaire (Carver &  
111 White, 1994). Measurements of brain reward responses to visual and olfactory food and non-food cues  
112 were collected (and reported elsewhere). At the end of this reward paradigm participants rated their  
113 appetite (hunger, fullness, prospective consumption, desire to eat, and thirst) on a 100-mm visual  
114 analogue scale (VAS). Then a structural MR image was collected. Finally, participants took part in two  
115 functional runs during which a food-specific go/no-go task was performed. At the end of the test session,  
116 olfactory performance was assessed using the Sniffin' Sticks (threshold, discrimination, identification;  
117 Hummel et al., 2007).

#### 118 *fMRI – Go/No-Go task*

119 The food-specific go/no-go paradigm was adapted from Batterink et al. (Batterink et al., 2010).  
120 Participants were instructed to press a button as quickly and accurately as possible in response to go  
121 trials (75% occurrence) and to refrain from responding to no-go trials (25% occurrence). Two separate  
122 functional runs were performed, each consisting of 48 trials. One run contained go-vegetable items and

123 no-go dessert items, the other run contained go-dessert items and no-go vegetable items (see Figure 1).  
124 The order of the runs was counterbalanced between participants. During each trial a picture was  
125 presented for 500 ms, depicting either a low-energy vegetable (i.e. corn, peas, Brussels sprouts,  
126 radishes, carrot, broccoli, cauliflower, haricots, zucchini) or a high-energy dessert (i.e. ice cream, cake,  
127 frozen yogurt, pudding, chocolate mousse, chocolates, cookies). Participants had 2000 ms to respond  
128 from stimulus onset. Trials were presented in pseudo-randomized order. Between trials a fixation cross  
129 was presented for a duration of 7-19 seconds. No-go trials would appear after 1, 2, or 3 go-trials.  
130 Reaction times were measured from the beginning of trial onset and collected with a fiber-optic response  
131 box system. Stimuli were presented visually using the Presentation software package (Version 9,  
132 Neurobehavioral Systems, Davis, CA) and were displayed using a video projector that illuminated a rear  
133 projection screen located at the end of the magnet bore. Subjects viewed the stimuli through an  
134 adjustable mirror attached to the head coil.

135 <<Figure 1 Approximately here>>

### 136 *(f)MRI measurements*

137 Each participant was scanned at approximately the same time of day, between 14:00-17:00 at hospital  
138 Gelderse Vallei (Ede, the Netherlands). Images were acquired with a 3-Tesla Siemens Magnetom Verio  
139 MRI scanner in combination with a 32-channel head coil. A high-resolution T<sub>1</sub>-weighted anatomical MRI  
140 scan was acquired (MPRAGE: repetition time = 1900 ms, echo time = 2.26 ms, 9° flip angle, field of view  
141 = 256 x 256 mm, 192 sagittal slices, voxel size = 0.5 x 0.5 x 1 mm). Subsequently, 176 T<sub>2</sub><sup>\*</sup>-weighted  
142 gradient echo images with BOLD contrast (repetition time = 2240 ms, echo time = 25 ms, 90° flip angle,  
143 field of view = 192 x 192 mm, 45 axial slices, ascending order, voxel size 3 x 3 x 3 mm) were acquired  
144 for each of the two functional runs during which participants performed a food Go/No-Go task. The  
145 imaging volume was tilted at an oblique angle of 30° to the anterior-posterior commissure line to reduce  
146 signal dropout in the orbitofrontal and ventral temporal lobes (Deichmann, Gottfried, Hutton, & Turner,  
147 2003). Head movements were restricted by placing foam cushions next to the participants' head. In  
148 addition, adhesive tape was placed across the participants' forehead to provide feedback on head  
149 movements. Earplugs were provided for noise reduction.

150 *Data analyses*

151 Participant characteristics

152 Participant characteristics were analysed using SPSS in IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 22.0  
153 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA). Paired-samples T-tests were used to test differences in weight, BMI,  
154 hunger ratings and BIS/BAS-scores pre- and post-surgery.

155 Behavioural data go/no-go

156 Behavioural data of the go/no-go task were also analysed using SPSS. Mean commission error rates of  
157 the go/no-go task were calculated by dividing the total number of incorrect responses to no-go trials by  
158 the total number of no-go trials. Mean omission error rates were calculated by dividing the total number  
159 of non-responses to go-items by the total number of go-trials. Mean reaction times (ms) of responses to  
160 each type of trial (go-dessert, go-vegetable, no-go dessert, no-go vegetable) were calculated for each  
161 participant. Response times below 200 ms and over 2000 ms were excluded. The low number of  
162 commission errors rendered the reaction time data for the no-go items unsuitable for statistical testing.  
163 Pre- to post-surgery differences in response time (ms) to go items were analysed by following a linear  
164 Mixed Effects Models procedure including stimulus type (go-dessert; go-vegetable) as fixed effects  
165 factor. Time point (pre- and post-gastric bypass surgery), stimulus (dessert/vegetable), and task-  
166 instruction (go/no-go) were included as repeated variables. A p-value of <0.05 was considered  
167 statistically significant.

168 << Table 1 Approximately here >>

169 fMRI data go/no-go

170 Whole brain functional images were pre-processed and analysed using the SPM12 software package  
171 (Wellcome Department of Imaging Neuroscience, London, United Kingdom) run within MATLAB 7.12.0  
172 (R2011a, The Mathworks Inc). Functional images were slice timed, realigned and coregistered. The  
173 DARTEL framework was used to create a study-specific template and participant-specific deformation  
174 fields (Ashburner, 2007). The images were then spatially normalized to the Montreal Neurological  
175 Institute (MNI) standard brain using the study-specific DARTEL template and the participant-specific  
176 deformation fields. Smoothing was applied to the normalized images using an isotropic Gaussian kernel  
177 with a 6-mm full width at half maximum. Artefact Repair was applied using the ArtRepair toolbox in  
178 SPM12 (see: <http://cibsr.stanford.edu/tools/human-brain-project/artrepair-software.html>). Of the twenty  
179 datasets that were acquired, two datasets were excluded that contained movements more than 4 mm.  
180 Trials with commission errors (incorrect no-go trials) were not excluded from the analyses.



181 Subject level analyses: Each test session (pre-/post-surgery) was modelled separately. Four conditions  
182 were included per model: visual exposure to go dessert trials, no-go vegetable trials, go vegetable trials  
183 and no-go dessert trials. Motion-correction parameters were included in the model. For each subject four  
184 contrast images were calculated:  $nogo\_dessert_{pre}$  vs rest,  $nogo\_dessert_{post}$  vs rest,  $nogo\_vegetable_{pre}$  vs  
185 rest and  $nogo\_vegetable_{post}$  vs rest. Subsequently we subtracted the post-surgery contrast images from  
186 the pre-surgery contrast images using the SPM12 image calculation routine.

187 Group level analyses: Two one-sample T-tests were performed to test our hypotheses. In each test we  
188 looked at contrast images containing the difference between activations pre- and post-surgery  
189 ( $nogo\_dessert_{pre}-nogo\_dessert_{post}$ ;  $nogo\_vegetable_{pre}-nogo\_vegetable_{post}$ ). We report whole brain results,  
190 with a significance level of  $p=.001$  (uncorrected) and a cluster extent threshold of  $k=8$  contiguous  
191 voxels. The MarsBar toolbox (<http://marsbar.sourceforge.net/>) run in Matlab 7.12.0 (R2011a; The  
192 Mathworks Inc., Natick, MA) was used to extract mean beta values from all significant clusters. These  
193 values were subsequently correlated with pre- to post- surgery changes in BMI, changes in body weight,  
194 and changes in feelings of hunger, fullness, prospective consumption and desire to eat. Correlation  
195 analyses were performed in SPSS using Pearson's correlation coefficient.

## 196 Results

### 197 *RYGB effects - weight loss*

198 The mean weight of our study population decreased from  $121 \pm 15$  pre-RYGB to  $105 \pm 16$  kg post-RYGB  
199 (mean $\pm$ SD), a mean weight loss of  $17 \pm 3$  kg ( $p < .001$ ). This weight change led to a decrease in BMI from  
200  $42 \pm 4$  to  $36 \pm 4$  kg/m<sup>2</sup> ( $p < .001$ ), with a mean decrease of  $6 \pm 1$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>.

### 201 *Behavioural ratings*

202 During the post-surgery test session, participants indicated less hunger before the go/no-go task ( $\pm 50$   
203 min after meal intake;  $p=.056$ ), rated a higher fullness, a decreased prospective consumption and less  
204 desire to eat (all  $p < .01$ ). Ratings for thirst were comparable between the two test sessions ( $p=.349$ ; see  
205 Table 1). There were no changes in BIS/BAS scores, except for a slight increase in reward  
206 responsiveness pre- to post surgery ( $p = .045$ ).

207 *Behavioural data*

208 No-go items

209 Commission errors (incorrect responses during the no-go items) for no-go dessert items occurred at a  
210 mean rate of 8.5% ( $\pm 8.6$ ) pre-surgery, and 8.8% ( $\pm 10.9$ ) post-surgery. Commission errors for no-go  
211 vegetable items occurred around 16.8% ( $\pm 15.8$ ) pre-surgery, and 14.8% ( $\pm 14.7$ ) post-surgery.

212 The go/no-go task included 12 no-go items per run. Commission errors to no-go dessert items occurred  
213 at  $443 \pm 87$  ms (mean $\pm$ SD) pre-surgery and at  $501 \pm 132$  post-surgery. Commission errors in response to  
214 no-go vegetable items had a mean reaction time of  $526 \pm 125$  ms. After surgery, responses to no-go  
215 vegetable items occurred at  $504 \pm 143$ .

216 Go items

217 For the go dessert items, the omission error rate (non-responses during the go-trials) changed from  
218 0.9% ( $\pm 1.7$ ) before surgery to 1.7% ( $\pm 2.5$ ) after surgery. The mean rate of omission errors for go  
219 vegetable items was 4.0% ( $\pm 2.7$ ) before surgery and 3.4% ( $\pm 2.0$ ) after surgery.

220 There were no significant differences between reaction times to go dessert items before ( $543 \pm 90$  ms;  
221 mean $\pm$ SD) versus after RYGB ( $567 \pm 122$  ms;  $p = .395$ ), nor between reaction times to go vegetable  
222 items before ( $544 \pm 138$  ms) and after RYGB ( $538 \pm 135$  ms;  $p = .395$ ).

223 *Functional imaging data*

224 No-go desserts

225 Comparisons between pre- and post-surgery fMRI BOLD responses for the no-go dessert trials revealed  
226 increased post-surgical activation of the right middle frontal gyrus (lateral part), the medial part of the  
227 right superior frontal gyrus, the right inferior frontal gyrus (pars triangularis), the right middle cingulum  
228 and the inferior frontal operculum (see Table 2 and Figure 2). There were no regions in which no-go  
229 activation was significantly decreased post- compared to pre-surgery.

230 There were no significant correlations between pre- to post-surgery changes in neural responses during  
231 no-go dessert trials and changes in BMI or body weight, changes in feelings of hunger, fullness,  
232 prospective consumption and desire to eat (all  $p > .05$ ).

233 No-go vegetables

234 Pre-surgical neural activation to no-go vegetable items was significantly higher in the right  
235 hypothalamus, left superior temporal pole and right parahippocampal gyrus, relative to post-surgery (see

236 Table 2 and Figure 3). There were no regions in which activation was significantly increased post-  
237 compared to pre-surgery.

238 Pre- to post-surgery changes in activation of the right parahippocampal gyrus during no-go vegetable  
239 items were correlated with changes in ratings of fullness provided right before the go/no-go task ( $r = -$   
240  $0.625$ ,  $p = .007$ ). No significant correlations were found between pre- to post-surgery changes in neural  
241 responses during no-go vegetable trials and BMI or body weight, and changes in feelings of hunger,  
242 prospective consumption and desire to eat (all  $p > .05$ ).

243 << Table 2 Approximately here >>

244 << Figure 2 Approximately here >>

245 << Figure 3 Approximately here >>

## 246 Discussion

247 To our knowledge, this is the first study to investigate changes in neural inhibition to food cues after  
248 RYGB. We found pre- to post-surgery increases in neural response to no-go high-energy dense food  
249 items in regions involved in inhibitory control (middle, medial superior- and inferior frontal gyrus).  
250 Further, neural activation in response to no-go low-energy dense food items was less pronounced in  
251 regions related to satiation (hypothalamus, parahippocampal gyrus, superior temporal pole) after  
252 surgery. Alterations in reward related activation were found for both no-go dessert and no-go vegetable  
253 trials (inferior frontal gyrus, middle cingulate gyrus, inferior frontal operculum, parahippocampal gyrus,  
254 superior temporal pole).

255 As expected, neural activation to no-go vegetable items did not change after surgery in regions involved  
256 in inhibitory control. During response inhibition towards desserts, however, we observed increased  
257 involvement of prefrontal regions (middle-, medial superior- and inferior frontal gyrus) after surgery.  
258 Previous research has linked increased activation in these regions to greater exertion and success of  
259 inhibitory control (Chikazoe et al., 2009; Hutcherson, Plassmann, Gross, & Rangel, 2012; Kober et al.,  
260 2010; Li, Huang, Constable, & Sinha, 2006; Scharmüller, Übel, Ebner, & Schienle, 2012; Sebastian et  
261 al., 2012; Van der Meer, Groenewold, Nolen, Pijnenborg, & Aleman, 2011). This suggests that activation  
262 in these frontal regions can serve as an indicator for response inhibition capacity. Interestingly, Lapenta  
263 et al. found that it is possible to induce changes in response inhibition processes by transcranial direct  
264 current stimulation (tDCS) of the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (dlPFC) (Lapenta, Di Servede, De Macedo,  
265 Fregni, & Boggio, 2014). They showed that this type of neural stimulation leads to significant changes in

266 neural markers of inhibitory control, and also to reduced craving and food intake. In our study, increased  
267 prefrontal cortex activation post-surgery could indicate an increase in neural inhibitory control in  
268 response to appetizing food items. In contrast to Batterink et al. (Batterink et al., 2010) who found  
269 correlations between current BMI and prefrontal activation during inhibitory control, we did not find  
270 significant correlations between changes in prefrontal activation and changes in body weight or BMI. This  
271 is likely related to greater variation (from lean to obese) in current BMI in their study (Batterink et al.,  
272 2010), versus limited variation in within-subject changes in BMI in the current study. The observed  
273 changes in neural processing after RYGB support an improved response inhibition towards high-energy  
274 foods. Moreover, research on the effect of laparoscopic adjustable gastric banding, showed increased  
275 activity in similar frontal regions such as medial, middle, superior frontal gyrus, that was associated with  
276 weight loss (Ness et al., 2014). Together this highlights the role of neural circuitry implicated in reward  
277 and cognitive control in the success and maintenance of weight loss surgery.

278 Post-surgical reductions in parahippocampal gyrus, superior temporal pole, and also hypothalamus  
279 activation during low-energy no-go items, but not during high-energy no-go items, could relate to  
280 metabolic signals of satiety. In the current study, participants were equally satiated directly after meal  
281 intake in both test sessions (see Supplementary Table 2), but felt less hungry and more full post-  
282 compared to pre-surgery before starting the go/no-go task. This could be related to accelerated digestion  
283 and absorption of nutrients after RYGB (Bojsen-Moller et al., 2015). Moreover, a significant correlation  
284 was found between pre- to post-surgery changes in parahippocampal gyrus activation and changes in  
285 ratings of fullness. Previous studies found increased brain activation to high-energy food cues (visual,  
286 taste) in the parahippocampal gyrus and hypothalamus in a hungry compared to a satiated state (Haase,  
287 Cerf-Ducastel, & Murphy, 2009; LaBar et al., 2001; Leidy, Lepping, Savage, & Harris, 2011; Van der  
288 Laan, De Ridder, Viergever, & Smeets, 2011), and related this to an increased salience of energy-rich  
289 products during hunger (Mohanty, Gitelman, Small, & Mesulam, 2008; Van der Laan, De Ridder,  
290 Viergever, & Smeets, 2014). In light of this, the decrease in hypothalamic, parahippocampal and  
291 superior temporal pole activation during response inhibition after surgery suggests that the increase in  
292 feelings of fullness is related to a decrease in salience of low-energy products, but not high-energy  
293 products.

294 Besides increased activation in prefrontal regions of inhibitory control, we found increased activation in  
295 the inferior frontal gyrus, inferior frontal operculum and middle cingulate cortex during response  
296 inhibition towards high-energy food. Although, activation in these regions has been linked to selective  
297 attention and more effective response inhibition (Booth et al., 2003; Cojan, Waber, Carruzzo, &  
298 Vuilleumier, 2009; Hirose et al., 2009; Li et al., 2006), these regions are also implicated in processing of

299 reward value and taste evaluation in response to cue exposure during anticipation, consumption  
300 (Nummenmaa et al., 2012; Small, Zatorre, Dagher, Evans, & Jones-Gotman, 2001; Stice, Spoor, Bohon,  
301 Veldhuizen, & Small, 2008), and self-regulation (Hare, Malmaud, & Rangel, 2011; Vollm et al., 2006;  
302 Zotev et al., 2011). Our results thus suggest greater engagement of these reward-related areas during  
303 response inhibition for high-energy products after surgery. Decreased post-surgery activation of the  
304 parahippocampal gyrus and superior temporal pole during response inhibition for low-energy food  
305 products could also be associated with changes in reward processing. Increased activation in the  
306 parahippocampal gyrus during exposure to taste and smell of food was associated with decreasing  
307 reward value in healthy (Small et al., 2001) and obese subjects (Bragulat et al., 2010). The observed  
308 reduction in parahippocampal gyrus deactivation during response inhibition to low-energy food cues thus  
309 could imply a more positive attitude towards these cues. However, we have no ratings of liking or  
310 wanting ratings for the food stimuli, so we can only speculate about a link between the decrease in  
311 inhibitory activation and higher preference for low-energy products. Nevertheless, the relative increase in  
312 preference for low-energy food found in RYGB patients reported in previous studies (Kenler et al., 1990;  
313 Ochner, Stice, et al., 2012; Thirlby et al., 2006) and our own research (under review elsewhere), does  
314 support a more positive attitude towards vegetables after surgery.

315 As mentioned above, the regions in which we see increased activation in response to no-go dessert items  
316 after surgery have been linked to increased exertion of neural inhibitory control and also to more  
317 successful behavioural inhibition (Chikazoe et al., 2009; Hutcherson et al., 2012; Kober et al., 2010; Li  
318 et al., 2006; Scharmüller et al., 2012; Sebastian et al., 2012; Van der Meer et al., 2011). It would be  
319 interesting to link these neural data to actual behavioural changes. However, the limited amount of no-  
320 go trials (n=12) in the task we used, unfortunately rendered the behavioural data for this condition  
321 unsuitable for reliable statistical inferences about correlation to neural outcomes. Further, reaction times  
322 to go-dessert and go-vegetable items were not significantly different between the pre- and post-surgery  
323 test session. Thus, with the current data we cannot conclude whether the changes we find solely reflect  
324 increased exertion of neural inhibitory control or whether they have implications for actual behaviour. It  
325 is important to note though, that diminished activation assessed by means of fMRI BOLD response could  
326 imply more, as well as less efficient neural processing of stimuli. Future research including more  
327 extensive behavioural measures is needed to clarify the link between changes in neural and behavioural  
328 response inhibition in RYGB patients. However, the food specific go/no-go task does approach real-life  
329 decision-making processes better than the passive reward tasks that have been used in previous  
330 research (e.g. Ochner et al., 2011; Ochner, Stice, et al., 2012). Because of limited statistical power due  
331 to the relatively small sample size, we have used a relatively lenient threshold for the fMRI analyses. We

332 are aware that this increases the risk of false positive results. Nonetheless, this research provides unique  
333 additional insight in the mechanisms underlying the effectivity of RYGB surgery. The within-subject  
334 design provides a solid method for testing RYGB related changes. However, in order to rule out  
335 alternative mediating factors of the neural findings, besides surgery, future studies should preferably also  
336 include a control group of (morbidly) obese individuals, who will follow a dietary weight loss program,  
337 that includes the same psychological, and physical support that is offered in the bariatric surgery  
338 programme. Moreover, unlike most previous research, measurements in this study have been obtained in  
339 a satiated state, to better mimic a context of overeating that has a greater ecological relevance in  
340 obesity. Despite high effectiveness of RYGB on weight loss and promising results demonstrated in a 20  
341 year follow-up study (Sjöström, 2013), weight regain after more than one year post-surgery is a  
342 recurring problem in a subset of patients (Himes et al., 2015). Perhaps additional (cognitive) treatment  
343 focused on improving and maintaining response inhibition skills can reduce weight-regain after RYGB  
344 surgery.

## 345 Conclusion

346 After RYGB surgery, patients showed increased activation during a food specific go/no-go task to high-  
347 energy food cues in prefrontal brain regions implicated in inhibition. These neural changes after surgery  
348 indicate improved response inhibition towards high-energy food cues and increased influence of  
349 metabolic control during processing of low-energy food cues. We found altered neural responses during  
350 response inhibition towards both high- and low-energy food cues in reward-related areas, which indicate  
351 a more positive attitude towards these cues after RYGB. It is plausible that changes in the (re)activity of  
352 neural circuits involved in inhibitory control, satiety and reward processing together underlie effective  
353 weight-loss by contributing to the shift in preference and intake from high- to low-energy dense foods  
354 observed after RYGB. Future research should aim to clarify the association between neural changes and  
355 actual measures of eating behaviour and put effort into improving effectivity of weight-loss treatment.

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### 363 **Conflict of interest**

364 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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## Figure legends

**Figure 1.** The food-specific Go/No-Go paradigm. In block A. participants were instructed to press a button in response to vegetable items (36 items) and withhold their response to dessert items (12 items). In block B. the instruction was reversed, participants had to press the button in response to dessert items (36 items) and withhold their response to vegetable items (12 items). The block order was counterbalanced between participants.

**Figure 2.** Regions in which brain activation during response inhibition to dessert items was significantly different pre- and post RYGB surgery. Brain images were thresholded at  $p=.005$  for visualisation. **Upper:** The right inferior frontal gyrus (Tri; MNI: 57 27 18) was more activated after compared to before surgery and the right inferior frontal operculum (MNI: 51 9 24) showed more activation after compared to before surgery. **Middle:** The right middle frontal gyrus (MNI: 45 54 6) was more activated after than before surgery and the right medial superior frontal gyrus (MNI: 12 60 27) showed deactivation before surgery and activation after surgery. **Lower:** The right middle cingulate cortex (MNI 3 -27 33) was more activated after surgery.

**Figure 3.** Regions in which brain activation during response inhibition to vegetable items was significantly reduced post- compared to pre-RYGB surgery. Brain images were thresholded at  $p=.005$  for visualisation. **Left:** The right hypothalamus (MNI: 3 3 -12) was activated before surgery and deactivated after surgery. **Middle:** The right parahippocampal gyrus (MNI: 18 -15 -21) displayed activation before and deactivation after surgery. **Right:** The left superior temporal pole (MNI: -36 12 -27) showed activation before surgery and deactivation after surgery.

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**Supplemental Table 1. Composition of the standardized meal.**

	<b>Men</b>		<b>Women</b>	
	<b>Pre</b>	<b>Post</b>	<b>Pre</b>	<b>Post</b>
<b>Bread Roll</b> ( <i>Wheat bread (<math>\pm 22</math> g/roll)</i> )	4 pcs	2 pcs	3 pcs	1 pcs
<b>Margarine</b> ( <i>Low-fat</i> )	30 g	15 g	15 g	15 g
<b>Cheese</b> ( <i>Full-fat semi-cured</i> )	40 g	20 g	40 g	20 g
<b>Ham</b>	40 g	20 g	20 g	-
<b>Orange Juice</b>	150 g	75 g	100 g	50 g
<b>kCal total meal</b>	570	174	421	107

**Supplemental Table 2. Hunger ratings provided after meal intake and around 50 minutes before the go/no-go task commenced, before and after RYGB surgery.**

		<b>Pre-surgery Mean <math>\pm</math> SD</b>	<b>Post-surgery Mean <math>\pm</math> SD</b>	<b>Sign. Difference</b>
<b>Hunger</b>		11 $\pm$ 21	11 $\pm$ 24	<i>p</i> = 0.954
<b>Fullness</b>		74 $\pm$ 25	67 $\pm$ 35	<i>p</i> = 0.335
<b>Prospective consumption</b>	<i>100-mm VAS</i>	25 $\pm$ 26	8 $\pm$ 18	<i>p</i> = 0.051
<b>Desire to eat</b>		18 $\pm$ 19	12 $\pm$ 23	<i>p</i> = 0.435
<b>Thirst</b>		66 $\pm$ 27	53 $\pm$ 29	<i>p</i> = 0.049

**Table 1. Weight, BMI, Hunger ratings provided right before the go/no-go task and BIS/BAS scores before and after RYGB surgery.**

		<b>Before surgery</b>	<b>After surgery</b>	
		<b>Mean ± SD</b>	<b>Mean ± SD</b>	<b>Sign. Difference</b>
<b>Weight (kg)</b>		121 ± 15	105 ± 16	<i>p</i> < 0.001
<b>BMI (kg/m<sup>2</sup>)</b>		42 ± 4	36 ± 4	<i>p</i> < 0.001
<b>Hunger</b>		27 ± 31	14 ± 24	<i>p</i> = 0.056
<b>Fullness</b>		43 ± 29	72 ± 18	<i>p</i> = 0.001
<b>Prospective consumption</b>	<i>100-mm VAS</i>	37 ± 27	17 ± 21	<i>p</i> = 0.002
<b>Desire to eat</b>		44 ± 35	24 ± 26	<i>p</i> = 0.009
<b>Thirst</b>		76 ± 26	70 ± 28	<i>p</i> = 0.349
<b>BAS Drive</b>	<i>max 16</i>	11.6 ± 2.1	12.1 ± 2.2	<i>p</i> = 0.132
<b>BAS Fun Seeking</b>	<i>max 16</i>	10.8 ± 2.1	11.3 ± 2.3	<i>p</i> = 0.166
<b>BAS Reward Responsiveness</b>	<i>max 20</i>	17.8 ± 1.6	18.4 ± 1.6	<i>p</i> = 0.045
<b>BIS</b>	<i>max 28</i>	20.3 ± 4.4	19.8 ± 3.6	<i>p</i> = 0.366

**Table 2. Regions in which brain activation during no-go food items was significantly different pre- and post RYGB surgery**

		cluster size	Z-score	Peak coordinates			
				x	y	z	
<b>DESSERT</b>							
no-go <sub>pre</sub> < no-go <sub>post</sub>	R	Middle Frontal Gyrus / Lateral PFC	30	4.42	45	54	6
	R	Medial Superior Frontal Gyrus / Medial PFC	23	4.02	12	60	27
	R	Inferior Frontal Gyrus (Tri) / Dorsolateral PFC	15	3.87	57	27	18
	R	Middle Cingulum (posterior part)	10	3.59	3	-27	33
	R	Inferior Frontal Operculum	10	3.53	51	9	24
<b>VEGETABLE</b>							
no-go <sub>pre</sub> > no-go <sub>post</sub>	R	Hypothalamus	10	3.65	3	3	-12
	L	Superior Temporal Pole	11	3.63	-36	12	-27
	R	Parahippocampal gyrus	9	3.34	18	-15	-21



**BLOCK 1:**

GO = vegetables

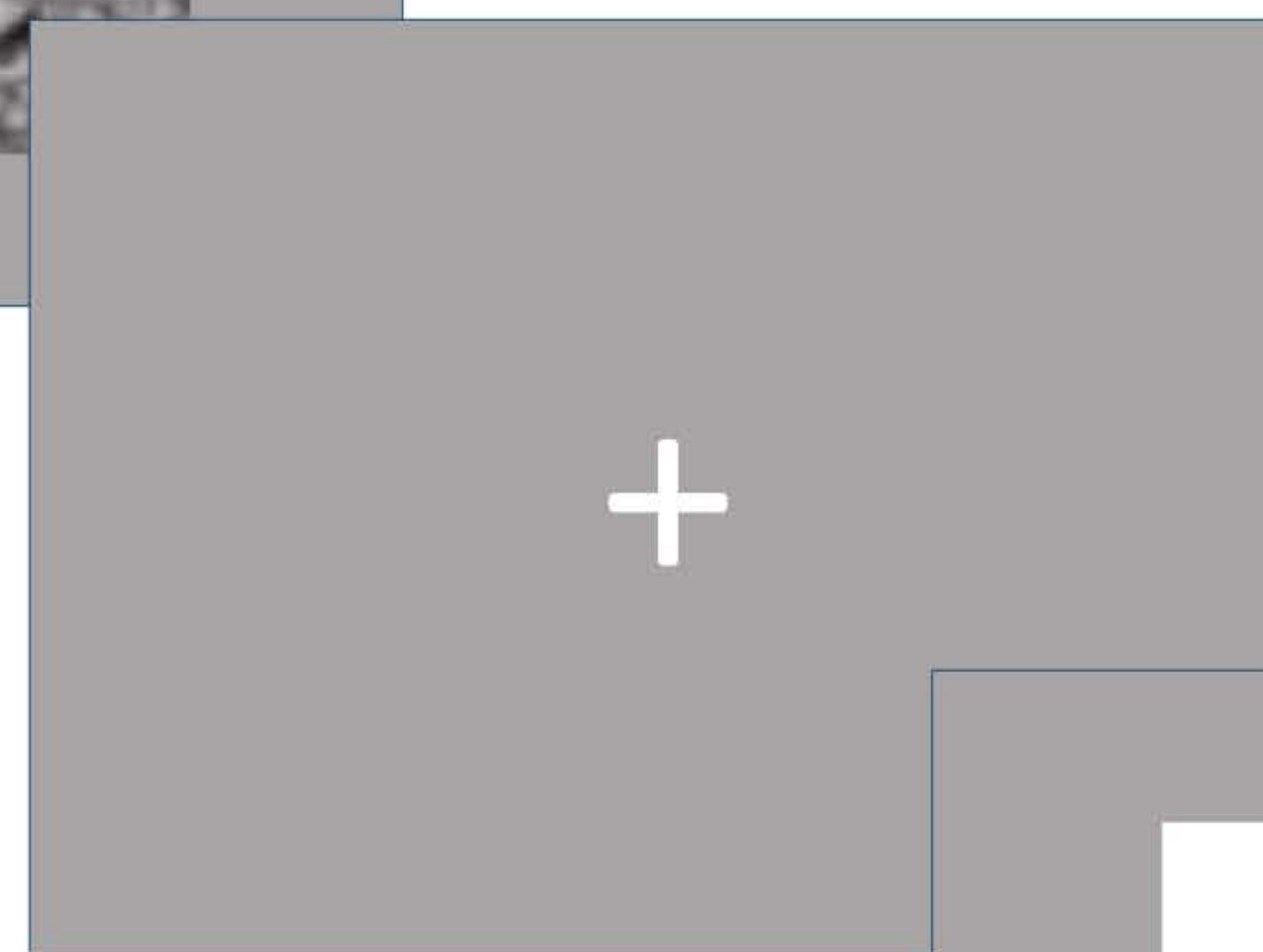
NO GO = desserts

**BLOCK 2:**

GO = desserts

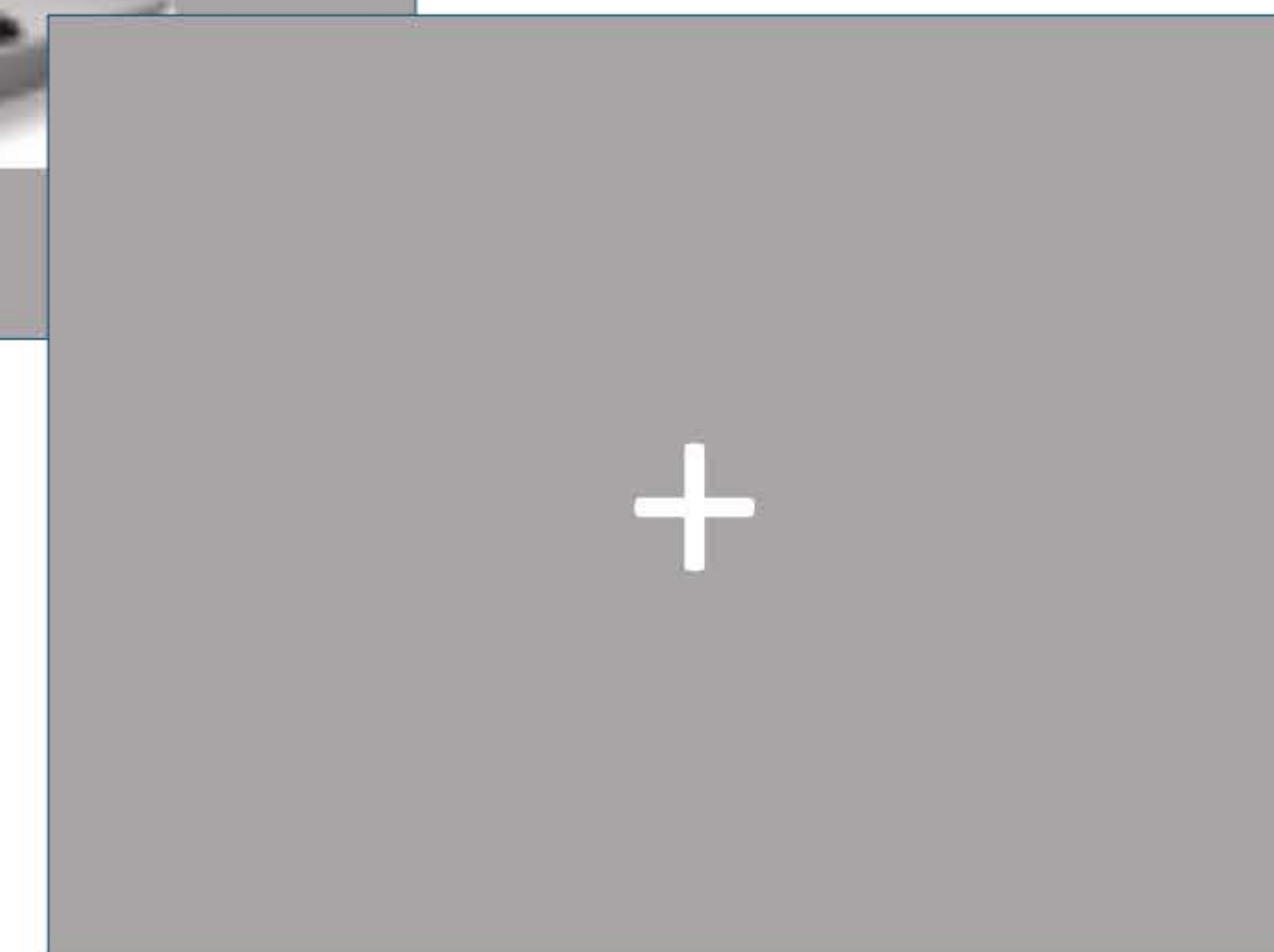
NO GO = vegetables

GO  
75 %  
500 ms



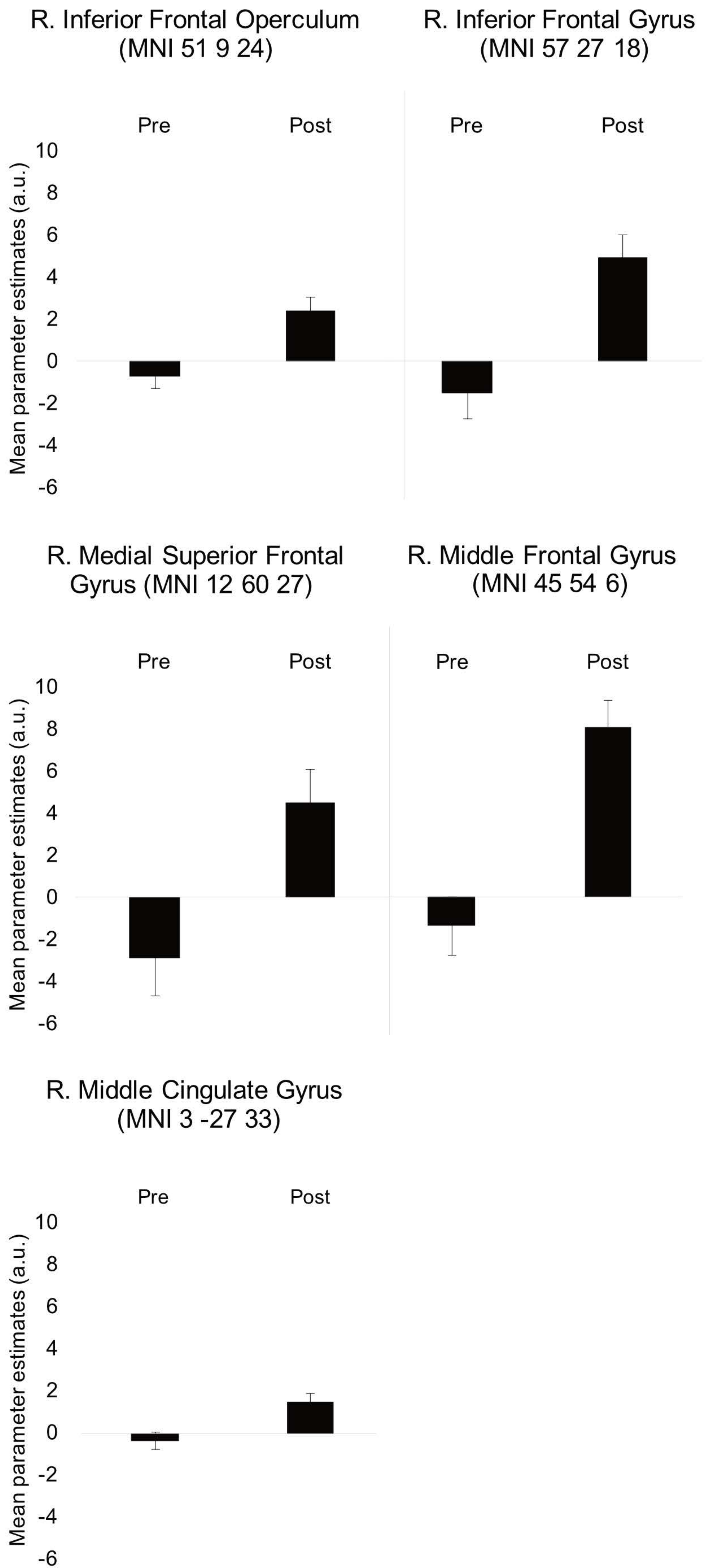
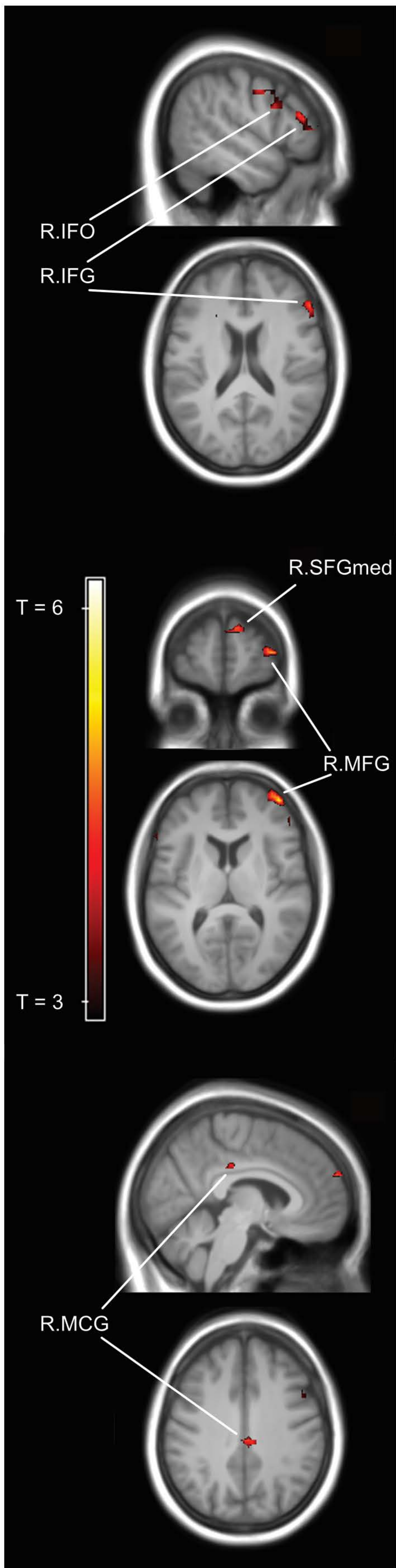
7-19 sec

NO GO  
25%  
500 ms



7-19 sec

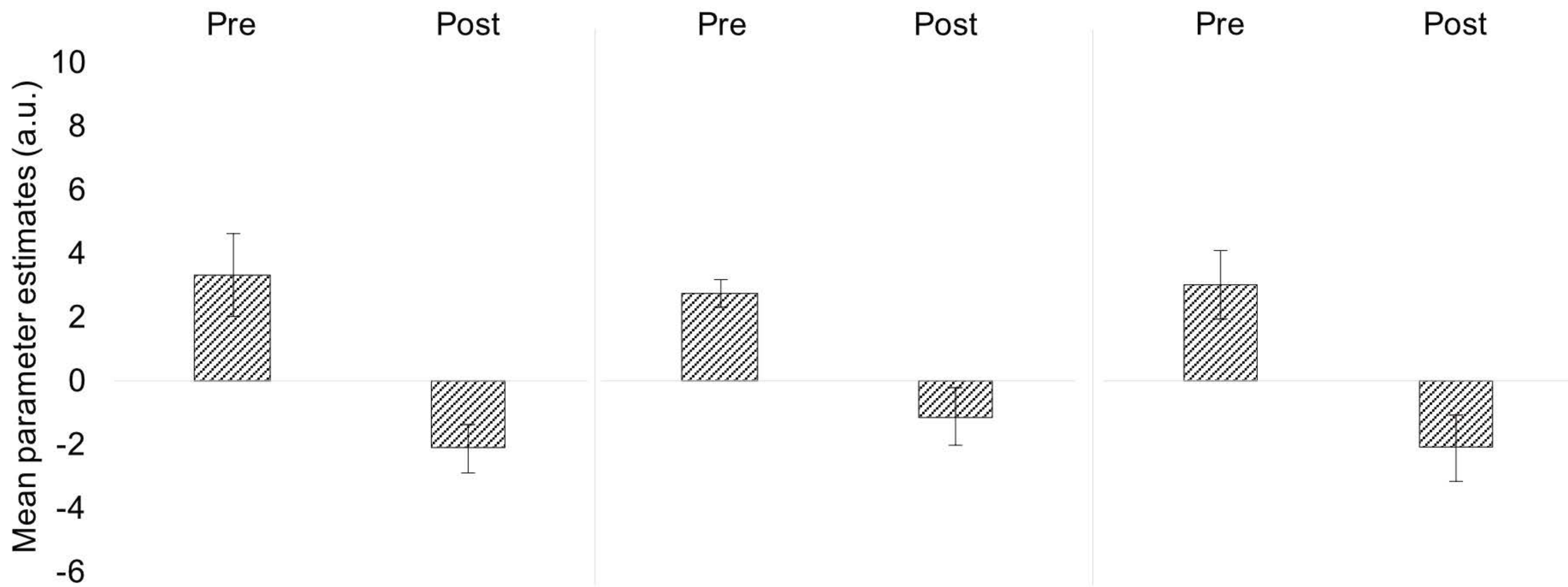




R. Hypothalamus  
(MNI 3 3 -12)

R. Parahippocampal Gyrus  
(MNI 18 -15 -21)

L. Superior Temporal Pole  
(MNI -36 12 -27)



R.HYPO

R.PHG

L.STP

