Published in final edited form as:

Gastroenterol Clin North Am. 2023 June; 52(2): 429-441. doi:10.1016/j.gtc.2023.02.003.

Disparities in Access and Quality of Obesity Care

Tiffani Bell Washington, MD, MPH^{a,*}, Veronica R. Johnson, MD^b, Karla Kendrick, MD, MPH^c, Awab Ali Ibrahim, MD^d, Lucy Tu^{e,f}, Kristen Sun, BA^g, Fatima Cody Stanford, MD, MPH, MBA^h

^aHarvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health, 677 Huntington Avenue, Boston, MA 02115, USA;

^bDepartment of Medicine, Division of General Internal Medicine and Geriatrics, Northwestern University Feinberg School of Medicine, Chicago, IL, USA;

^cBeth Israel Deaconess Medical Center, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA 02115, USA;

^dPediatric Gastroenterology, Massachusetts General Hospital and Harvard Medical School, 55 Fruit Street, Boston, MA 02114, USA;

Department of Sociology, Harvard College, 33 Kirkland Street, Cambridge, MA 02138, USA;

^fDepartment of Molecular and Cellular Biology, Harvard College, 33 Kirkland Street, Cambridge, MA 02138, USA;

⁹Boston University School of Medicine, Boston, MA 02215, USA;

^hDepartment of Medicine- Neuroendocrine Unit, Pediatric Endocrinology, MGH Weight Center, Nutrition Obesity Research Center at Harvard, Massachusetts General Hospital, Harvard Medical School, 50 Staniford Street, Suite 430, Boston, MA 02114, USA

Keywords

Disparities; Access to care; Quality obesity care; Health equity; Stigma	
--	--

INTRODUCTION

Obesity is a chronic disease and a significant public health threat predicated on complex genetic, psychological, and environmental factors. Although a chronic disease, obesity also exacerbates pre-existing conditions and may engender new ones. Obesity is associated with high mortality rates. These high mortality rates are often secondary to comorbidities such as diabetes, hypercholesterolemia, certain cancers, and cardiovascular disease. Obesity interventions from lifestyle modifications to pharmacotherapy and metabolic and bariatric surgery have significant downstream benefits. Disparities in access and quality of obesity care worsen health inequities for vulnerable populations.

^{*}Corresponding author. 3600 South College Road, Suite E, #151 Wilmington, NC 28409. TiffaniBell@hsph.harvard.edu. CONFLICT OF INTEREST DISCLOSURES (INCLUDES FINANCIAL DISCLOSURES)
The authors have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

A body mass index (BMI) 30 characterizes obesity in adults, whereas a BMI 40 characterizes severe obesity. Yet, BMI is an indirect measure of adiposity, and there is variation in BMI among various ethnic groups. 2–5 Obesity is highly prevalent, with 42.4% of the US adult population with obesity and 9.2% with severe obesity. Disparities in obesity rates are significant across racial and ethnic groups, with the lowest rates of obesity in non-Hispanic Asian adults (17.5%) and highest among non-Hispanic Black (49.6%) and Hispanic (44.8%) adults, whereas non-Hispanic White adults have rates of 42.2%. Individuals' socioeconomic environments impact disparities, and they are worse in areas with more negative social sentiments (ie, racism) that increase stress. Obesogenic food environments are disproportionately present in areas with a larger population of racial/ethnic minorities. 8,9

There is a tremendous stigma associated with obesity, as many believe it to be a consequence of personal behavioral choices despite its complex etiology. ¹⁰ Overwhelming data support genetic and environmental causes, but many blame individuals with obesity for their weight status. ¹¹ Weight stigma impacts many areas of life for people living with obesity, including the quality of health care they receive. Many physicians have negative or stereotypical beliefs about patients with obesity and primarily attribute obesity to individual behaviors. ^{12–14} These stereotypes negatively affect the quality-of-care patients with higher BMI receive, such as a delay in prescribing recommended medications due to a higher prevalence of physician-assumed nonadherence. ¹⁵

Individuals with higher BMI are also more likely to avoid health care due to weight stigma. Insurance policies encourage physicians to measure a patient's weight at each visit. Health guidelines require recommendations for weight loss for patients with higher BMI regardless of their visit. ¹⁶ Such policies and practices lead to worse health outcomes in non-obesity-related and obesity-related conditions.

Disparities in obesity care disproportionately impact racial and ethnic minorities and, most powerfully, Black individuals with obesity. One study showed that research conducted on predominantly White women failed to consider other groups' racialized and gendered experiences. This lack of inclusion resulted in less recruitment to weight loss programs and less weight loss through behavioral weight interventions (BWIs) for racial/ethnic minority groups than White patients.¹⁷

Obesity-related conditions such as hypertension and pancreatic cancer and treatments for obesity-related diseases such as sleep apnea disproportionately affect racial/ethnic minorities. ^{18–20} Even restrictions for treatments based on BMI (such as total knee and hip arthroplasties), which limit access to care by patients with obesity, disproportionately restrict care for racial and ethnic minorities regardless of BMI. ²¹ These disparities are most significant for Black Americans. Studies have found that while Black women have the highest rates of obesity, Black men have the highest mortality rates from obesity-related illnesses. ¹⁷ Such disparities highlight the need to address the existing inequities in access and quality of obesity care.

BACKGROUND

Current evidence-based treatment options for obesity include focusing on medication and lifestyle changes. For instance, nutrition-based interventions include limiting the intake of processed foods with high sugar and fat content. Regular physical activity is another common intervention that decreases sedentary behavior. Interventions such as obesity pharmacotherapy or metabolic and bariatric surgery (MBS) may be necessary for successful, long-term outcomes.

Health disparities are preventable differences in disease burden or opportunities to achieve optimal health that socially disadvantaged populations experience.^{27,28} For example, residents of low-income neighborhoods disproportionately encounter food deserts, areas where affordable, nutritious food options are scarce.^{29,30}

An analysis of the National Health and Nutrition Examination (NHANES) survey from 1999 to 2016 demonstrates that Black and Hispanic children and adolescents had the highest prevalence of obesity for all years between 1999 and 2016. In the most recent survey year, the prevalence of class I obesity (mild obesity) was most significant for Black women at 25.1% compared with 13.6% for White women. ^{22,31,32} Altogether, these findings indicate lifetime racial disparities in obesity prevalence, apparent in early childhood and progressing through adulthood.

In addition to this unequal disease burden, access to obesity treatment varies significantly. Lifestyle intervention programs are more successful with a higher frequency of visits. Still, many treatment facilities fail to account for discrepancies in transportation access, food insecurity, and temporal restrictions (eg, the constraints of a full-time work schedule), which complicate patient adherence. Thus, even if these treatment options are theoretically productive, they may be more difficult for low-income families and racial and ethnic minorities to implement in practice. Indeed, Black and Hispanic Americans lose less weight than White patients in behavioral lifestyle intervention treatments. ²⁸

Anti-obesity medication (AOM) is also significantly underutilized. For instance, Claridy and colleagues found the mentioned rate for anti-obesity drugs remains at 1% despite recommendations from the American Medical Association and the Endocrine Society to use AOM for long-term weight reduction.³⁴ This finding may be a consequence of the inadequate coverage for AOM through federal health insurance programs, which disproportionately inhibits low-income patients from pharmacotherapy access.³⁵ Furthermore, Black Americans are less likely than White Americans to have considered surgical interventions.³⁶ Often, Black Americans are less likely to be diagnosed with obesity, and therefore, less likely to be referred to metabolic and bariatric surgery centers.²⁸ Among adolescents with severe obesity, bariatric surgery is most often performed on White patients; moreover, while Medicaid insurance increases the use of MBS for White adolescent patients, it paradoxically decreases the use of MBS among non-White patients.³⁷

The geographic distribution of obesity medicine specialists also contributes to disparate access to care. To visit a certified obesity medicine physician, the median travel time for patients in high-income counties is 9 minutes; concurrently, patients in low-income or

rural counties face a median travel time of 43 minutes.^{38,39} Certain patients, including low-income families and racial and ethnic minorities, are thus more likely to be treated by a physician who does not have specialized training in obesity medicine.

The outcomes of undertreatment are significant. Disparities in obesity foreshadow integral inequality in health outcomes, including disability, the standard of living, and premature mortality. ^{23,40} Indeed, Black and Hispanic adults with obesity have higher odds of developing obesity-related diseases, including high blood pressure, heart attack, and stroke. ^{24,41} Thus, obesity has a correspondingly high economic burden. In the United States, the mean annual per capita health care cost of obesity is \$1160 for men and \$1650 for women, with an estimated total cost of \$260 billion. ^{25,42} To address the obesity epidemic and prevent increasing disparity, more investigations and interventions that address access to treatment are crucial.

Factors Contributing to Disparities in Access and Quality of Obesity Care

Stigma and discrimination toward people with obesity cause multiple harmful effects on their physical and psychological health. Among often blame persons with obesity for their weight. Some of the common harmful ideologies associated with obesity include laziness, unattractiveness, and a lack of willpower. Such negative connotations result in lifelong discrimination in various aspects of life, including workspace, schools, and health care. Elf-stigma is an often overlooked factor that has substantial adverse effects on persons with obesity. Holding negative beliefs about oneself because of weight can lead to poor quality of life, worse health outcomes (independent of obesity-related causes), and poor mental health.

A complex relationship between obesity and socioeconomic factors creates barriers to obesity prevention and care. Low-income and minority families face additional barriers contributing to increased obesity rates, including racism, chronic stress, and even the affordability of quality food such as vegetables, fruits, and lean meats. 52–55 Low-income families might find it more challenging to dedicate time and resources to healthy meal preparation. 53,56

The struggle for quality obesity care continues even after diagnosis. Obesity care comprises lifestyle modifications, pharmacologic therapy, and weight loss surgery. Unfortunately, minority communities face significant barriers in access to many of these measures. Unfortunately, non-Hispanic African Americans and Hispanics are more likely to face food insecurity, making it much harder to adhere to a specific diet. Increased food insecurity rates may play a role in findings that minorities lose less weight than White patients in lifestyle intervention treatments.

Black patients are less likely to be diagnosed with obesity than non-Hispanic White patients. This underdiagnosis could decrease referrals to weight loss centers where weight loss medications are generally prescribed. Weight loss surgery remains the most effective treatment of moderate to severe obesity. Despite this, racial and ethnic minorities have limited access to bariatric surgery. Many believe that limited access to MBS is due to a combination of factors, including the higher likelihood of being insured by Medicare/

Medicaid insurance. Medicare/Medicaid covers many minorities. Their reimbursement policies are often unfavorable for those with obesity; moreover, many of these centers are not located in areas where minorities receive their health care. 58

Despite the common misbelief that people with obesity are primarily responsible for their weight gain, many systemic factors such as racism, stigma, and policy likely play a significant role in our obesity epidemic. Efforts to address systemic factors are critical, and these measures should target preventing and treating obesity.

DISPARITIES IN ACCESS AND QUALITY OF OBESITY CARE: AMELIORATING FACTORS

Targeted, evidence-based strategies are needed to address obesity prevalence and obesity-specific care disparities. As certain groups, such as racial and ethnic minorities and those of lower socioeconomic status, have a higher prevalence of obesity, interventions need to address the unique challenges experienced by these populations. Lifestyle and behavioral therapy are the first lines in the treatment of obesity. Pharmacotherapy and bariatric surgery are also cornerstones of obesity treatment, with medical devices becoming more commonly used. Access to and utilization of these therapies is crucial to reducing obesity-related care disparities.

Lifestyle interventions, including promoting healthy food choices, increased physical activity, and decreased sedentary time, are more effective when incorporating behavioral strategies, such as goal setting, self-monitoring, and cognitive restricting.⁵⁹ Frequent contact or visits with trained coaches or health care providers also increases effectiveness.³³ Historically, lifestyle and behavioral interventions tailored to address social or community factors of diverse populations have had mixed results. ^{60,61} However, more recently, there has been more success in reaching underserved populations. High-intensity lifestyle interventions targeted at those with low socioeconomic status (SES) and racial and ethnic minorities have shown sustained success (5% weight loss at 24 months) with content tailored to the health literacy of the individual.⁶² A lifestyle behavioral intervention that utilizes a personalized range, delivered through a mobile, digital platform, has also shown success (5% weight loss at 12 months) in low-income and racial and ethnic minority populations. 63 In the latter study, high engagement with digital content was cited as a positive factor in weight loss, likely due to reduced barriers to accessing content given the use of a mobile application. Combining a lifestyle intervention with home-based parent education decreased post-partum weight gain at 12 months for Black women of low SES.⁶⁴ These studies highlight the importance of highly engaging interventions tailored for specific populations and decreasing barriers to accessing information.

Pharmacologic treatment of obesity is generally underutilized, with only 1.3% of eligible patients having prescriptions for AOMs across several large health care organizations throughout the United States.⁶⁵ There are few studies examining disparities in AOM use among underserved populations. Significant differences in prescription rates among racial and ethnic groups do not appear to be lower from majority groups, though estimates trend toward Hispanic individuals having lower rates of prescriptions.⁶⁵ Another study found that

less than 10% of Black and Hispanic individuals with overweight or obesity reported using weight loss medications. 66

Notably, Hispanic, Black, and low-income individuals are more likely to lack insurance coverage and are less likely to have adequate access to primary care, which may skew the results of these studies. ⁶⁷ Once obtained, there is also a lack of evidence on whether or not responses to anti-obesity medication differ significantly among different racial and ethnic groups. In a post hoc analysis of the satiety and clinical adiposity–liraglutide evidence in nondiabetic and diabetic people (SCALE) randomized control trial, Hispanic individuals achieved similar weight loss as non-Hispanic individuals. ^{68–70}

Bariatric surgery is one of the most effective treatments of sustained weight loss, but only 1% of eligible individuals undergo the procedure. Racial and ethnic minorities and those of low income, groups most affected by obesity, are the least likely to undergo the procedure and have less weight loss when they do, compared with Whites and those of higher income. Similarly, those without non-private insurance or insurance coverage are less likely to have the procedure. Interestingly, no significant racial or ethnic differences in resolving obesity-related comorbid conditions, such as type 2 diabetes mellitus and hypertension post-bariatric surgery, have been found. Among low-income individuals receiving Medicaid, there was an increase in bariatric surgery rates for those living in states that expanded Medicaid through the Affordable Care Act.

FDA-approved medical devices, such as intragastric balloons and vagal blockade devices, have gained traction as less invasive alternatives to bariatric surgery that may augment lifestyle changes. There is a lack of data to speculate on how feasible or effective these treatment options are for underserved groups. A US study of the dual intragastric balloon, which included racial and ethnic minorities, effectively induced weight loss. Still, they did not compare results among racial and ethnic groups. The surgery do not typically cover medical devices and have exorbitant out-of-pocket costs, limiting their use in socioeconomically disadvantaged groups.

We must address barriers to coverage and access to care to ensure that racial and ethnic minorities and socioeconomically disadvantaged groups can obtain all available therapies to treat obesity. The use of technology may be a means to improve the dissemination of information and reach of health care organizations to these underserved populations.^{82–85}

SUMMARY

Obesity disproportionately affects racial and ethnic minorities and, most severely, Black persons with obesity. Health inequities affect many populations, including historically disadvantaged populations, persons living in rural areas, people with disabilities, and marginalized racial and ethnic groups. Many factors lead to this, including limited access to *quality* obesity care and socioeconomic factors, such as living in an obesogenic food environment or experiencing frequent microaggressions and racism, which can ultimately increase chronic stress and the development of obesity. 7,86

Not surprisingly, these disparities in disease prevalence mirror similar inequality in access to quality obesity care and stem from many places, including poor access to care, inability to access quality obesity care with obesity-trained physicians and clinicians, and decreased rate of receiving official diagnosis obesity. Despite research supporting the use of lifestyle modification in addition to weight loss medications and surgery, when necessary, there is decreased utilization in persons with lower socioeconomic status or who are ethnic minorities. Some studies indicate that weight loss therapies and surgery are less effective in racial and ethnic minorities, but these disparities are likely repercussions of the unique challenges faced by minority communities 1,28

With the growing number of individuals with obesity, there is an urgent need to address disparities in access and quality of care. Improving formal medical obesity education and health care policies that expand coverage for obesity care may also be an impactful intervention. With the varying efficacy of different dietary or surgery interventions, precision medicine needs to have a growing role in Obesity medicine. ¹⁸

Funding:

National Institutes of Health NIDDK P30 DK040561 and L30 DK118710 (F.C. Stanford).

REFERENCES

- 1. Bischoff SC, Boirie Y, Cederholm T, et al. Towards a multidisciplinary approach to understanding and managing obesity and related diseases. Clin Nutr 2017;36(4): 917–38. [PubMed: 27890486]
- 2. Hudda MT, Nightingale CM, Donin AS, et al. Patterns of childhood body mass index (BMI), overweight and obesity in South Asian and black participants in the English National child measurement programme: effect of applying BMI adjustments standardizing for ethnic differences in BMI-body fatness associations. Int J Obes 2018;42(4):662–70.
- 3. Stanford FC, Lee M, Hur C. Race, Ethnicity, Sex, and Obesity: Is It Time to Personalize the Scale? Mayo Clin Proc 2019;94(2):362–3. [PubMed: 30711132]
- Yarlagadda S, Townsend MJ, Palad CJ, et al. Coverage of obesity and obesity disparities on American Board of Medical Specialties (ABMS) examinations. J Natl Med Assoc 2021;113(5):486–92. [PubMed: 33875239]
- 5. Mastrocola MR, Roque SS, Benning LV, et al. Obesity education in medical schools, residencies, and fellowships throughout the world: a systematic review. Int J Obes 2020;44(2):269–79.
- 6. Hales CM, Carroll MD, Fryar CD, et al. Prevalence of obesity and severe obesity among adults: the United States, 2017–2018. NCHS Data Brief 2020;360:1–8.
- 7. Park HJ, Francisco SC, Pang MR, et al. Exposure to anti-black lives matter movement and obesity of the black population. Soc Sci Med 2021;114265:1–9.
- 8. Bower KM, Thorpe RJ, Rhode C, et al. The intersection of neighborhood racial segregation, poverty, and urbanicity and its impact on food store availability in the United States. Prev Med 2014;58:33–9. [PubMed: 24161713]
- 9. Kwate NO, Yau C-Y, Loh J-M, et al. Inequality in obesigenic environments: fast food density in New York City. Health Place 2009;15(1):364–73. [PubMed: 18722151]
- Kyle TK, Dhurandhar EJ, Allison DB. Regarding obesity as a disease: evolving policies and their implications. Endocrinol Metab Clin North Am 2016;45(3): 511–20. [PubMed: 27519127]
- 11. Tylka TL, Annunziato R, Burgard D, et al. The weight-inclusive versus weight-normative approach to health: evaluating the evidence for prioritizing well-being over weight loss. J Obes 2014;2014;983495. [PubMed: 25147734]
- 12. Foster GD, Wadden TA, Makris AP, et al. Primary care physicians' attitudes about obesity and its treatment. Obes Res 2003;11(10):1168–77. [PubMed: 14569041]

13. Price JH, Desmond SM, Krol RA, et al. Family practice physicians' beliefs, attitudes, and practices regarding obesity. Am J Prev Med 1987;3(6):339–45. [PubMed: 3452374]

- 14. Tomiyama AJ, Finch LE, Belsky ACI, et al. Weight bias in 2001 versus 2013: contradictory attitudes among obesity researchers and health professionals. Obesity 2015;23(1):46–53. [PubMed: 25294247]
- 15. Huizinga MM, Bleich SN, Beach MC, et al. Disparity in physician perception of patients' adherence to medications by obesity status. Obesity 2010;18(10): 1932–7. [PubMed: 20186132]
- 16. Mensinger JL, Tylka TL, Calamari ME. Mechanisms underlying weight status and healthcare avoidance in women: A study of weight stigma, body-related shame and guilt, and healthcare stress. Body Image 2018;25:139–47. [PubMed: 29574257]
- 17. Carr LTB, Bell C, Alick C, et al. Responding to health disparities in behavioral weight loss interventions and COVID-19 in black adults: recommendations for health equity. J Racial Ethn Health Disparities 2022;9(3):739–47. [PubMed: 35192179]
- 18. Cohen SM, Howard JJM, Jin MC, et al. Racial disparities in surgical treatment of obstructive sleep apnea. OTO Open 2022;6(1). 2473974X221088870.
- 19. Batayeh B, Shelton R, Factor-Litvak P, et al. Racial disparities in avoidant coping and hypertension among midlife adults. J Racial Ethn Health Disparities 2022; 10(1):410–7. [PubMed: 35040108]
- Twohig PA, Butt MU, Gardner TB, et al. Racial and gender disparities among obese patients with pancreatic cancer: a trend analysis in the United States. J Clin Gastroenterol 2022. 10.1097/ MCG.000000000001688.
- 21. Carender CN, DeMik DE, Elkinset JM, et al. Are body mass index cutoffs creating racial, ethnic, and gender disparities in eligibility for primary total hip and knee arthroplasty? J Arthroplasty 2022;37(6):1009–16. [PubMed: 35182664]
- 22. Johnson VR, Acholonu NO, Dolan AC, et al. Racial disparities in obesity treatment among children and adolescents. Curr Obes Rep 2021;10(3):342–50. [PubMed: 33988825]
- 23. Ard JD, Miller G, Kahan S. Nutrition interventions for obesity. Med Clin North Am 2016;100(6):1341–56. [PubMed: 27745598]
- Kerr JA, Loughman A, Knox A, et al. Nutrition-related interventions targeting childhood overweight and Obesity: A narrative review. Obes Rev 2019; 20(Suppl 1):45–60.
- 25. de Lannoy L, Cowan T, Fernandez A, et al. Physical activity, diet, and weight loss in patients recruited from primary care settings: An update on obesity management interventions. Obes Sci Pract 2021;7(5):619–28. [PubMed: 34631139]
- 26. Nguyen NT, Varela JE. Bariatric surgery for obesity and metabolic disorders: state of the art. Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol 2017;14(3):160–9. [PubMed: 27899816]
- 27. Division of Population Health, N.C.f.C.D.P.a.H.P. Health Disparities. The United States has become increasingly diverse in the last century. According to the 2010 U.S. Census, approximately 36 percent of the population belongs to a racial or ethnic minority group. Though health indicators such as life expectancy and infant mortality have improved for most Americans, some minorities experience a disproportionate burden of preventable disease, death, and disability compared with non-minorities. 2017. Available at: https://www.cdc.gov/aging/disparities/index.htm#:w:text5Health%20disparities%20are%20preventable%20differences,other%20population%20groups%2C%20and%20communities. Accessed March 16, 2022.
- 28. Byrd AS, Toth AT, Stanford FC. Racial disparities in obesity treatment. Curr Obes Rep 2018;7(2):130–8. [PubMed: 29616469]
- 29. Ghosh-Dastidar B, Cohen D, Hunter G, et al. Distance to store, food prices, and obesity in urban food deserts. Am J Prev Med 2014;47(5):587–95. [PubMed: 25217097]
- 30. Anekwe CV, Jarrell A, Townsend M, et al. Socioeconomics of obesity. Curr Obes Rep 2020;9(3):272–9. [PubMed: 32627133]
- 31. Skinner AC, Ravanbakht SN, Skelton JA, et al. Prevalence of obesity and severe obesity in US Children, 1999–2016. Pediatrics 2018;141(3).
- 32. Gudzune KA, Johnson VR, Bramante CT, et al., Geographic availability of physicians certified by the american board of obesity medicine relative to obesity prevalence, Obesity, 27(12), 2019, 1958–1966. [PubMed: 31515965]

33. Webb VL, Wadden TA. Intensive lifestyle intervention for obesity: principles, practices, and results. Gastroenterology 2017;152(7):1752–64. [PubMed: 28192109]

- 34. Claridy MD, Czepiel KS, Bajaj SS, et al., Treatment of obesity: pharmacotherapy trends of office-based visits in the United States From 2011 to 2016, Mayo Clin Proc, 96 (12), 2021, 2991–3000. [PubMed: 34728060]
- 35. Gomez G, Stanford FC. US health policy and prescription drug coverage of FDA-approved medications for the treatment of obesity. Int J Obes 2018;42(3): 495–500.
- 36. Wee CC, Huskey KW, Bolcic-Jankovic D, et al. Sex, race, and consideration of bariatric surgery among primary care patients with moderate to severe obesity. J Gen Intern Med 2014;29(1):68–75. [PubMed: 24048655]
- 37. Perez NP, Westfal ML, Stapleton SM, et al. Beyond insurance: race-based disparities in the use of metabolic and bariatric surgery for the management of severe pediatric obesity. Surg Obes Relat Dis 2020 Mar;16(3):414–9. [PubMed: 31917198]
- 38. Pollack CC, Onega T, Edmond JA, et al., A national evaluation of geographic accessibility and provider availability of obesity medicine diplomates in the United States between 2011 and 2019, Int J Obes, 46 (3), 2022, 669–675.
- 39. Townsend MJ, Reddy N, Stanford FC. Geography and equity: expanding access to obesity medicine diplomate care. Int J Obes 2022;46(3):447–8.
- 40. Flegal KM, Kit BK, Orpana H, et al. Association of all-cause mortality with overweight and obesity using standard body mass index categories: a systematic review and meta-analysis. JAMA 2013;309(1):71–82. [PubMed: 23280227]
- 41. Zhang H, Rodriguez-Monguio R. Racial disparities in the risk of developing obesity-related diseases: a cross-sectional study. Ethn Dis 2012;22(3):308–16. [PubMed: 22870574]
- 42. Pratt CA, Loria CM, Arteage SS, et al. A systematic review of obesity disparities research. Am J Prev Med 2017;53(1):113–22. [PubMed: 28341221]
- 43. Puhl RM, Latner JD. Stigma, obesity, and the health of the nation's children. Psychol Bull 2007;133(4):557–80. [PubMed: 17592956]
- 44. Puhl R, Brownell KD. Bias, discrimination, and obesity. Obes Res 2001;9(12): 788–805. [PubMed: 11743063]
- 45. Puhl RM, Heuer CA. Obesity stigma: important considerations for public health. Am J Public Health 2010;100(6):1019–28. [PubMed: 20075322]
- 46. Wu YK, Berry DC. Impact of weight stigma on physiological and psychological health outcomes for overweight and obese adults: A systematic review. J Adv Nurs 2018;74(5):1030–42. [PubMed: 29171076]
- 47. Hilbert A, Braehler E, Haeuser W, et al. Weight bias internalization, core self-evaluation, and health in overweight and obese persons. Obesity 2014;22(1):79–85. [PubMed: 23836723]
- 48. Ramos Salas X, Forhan M, Caulfield T, et al. Addressing internalized weight bias and changing damaged social identities for people living with obesity. Front Psychol 2019;10:1409. [PubMed: 31293476]
- 49. Pearl RL, White MA, Grilo CM. Weight bias internalization, depression, and self-reported health among overweight binge eating disorder patients. Obesity 2014; 22(5):E142–8. [PubMed: 24039219]
- 50. Lear SA, Gasevic D, Schuurman N. Association of supermarket characteristics with the body mass index of their shoppers. Nutr J 2013;12:117. [PubMed: 23941309]
- 51. Cooksey-Stowers K, Schwartz MB, Brownell KD. Food swamps predict obesity rates better than food deserts in the United States. Int J Environ Res Public Health 2017;14(11).
- 52. Block JP, Scribner RA, DeSalvo KB. Fast food, race/ethnicity, and income: a geographic analysis. Am J Prev Med 2004;27(3):211–7. [PubMed: 15450633]
- 53. Darmon N, Drewnowski A. Does social class predict diet quality? Am J Clin Nutr 2008;87(5):1107–17. [PubMed: 18469226]
- 54. Aaron DG, Stanford FC. Is obesity a manifestation of systemic racism? A ten-point strategy for study and intervention. J Intern Med 2021;290(2):416–20. [PubMed: 33675581]

55. Harris JL, Frazier W III, Kumanyika S, et al. Increasing disparities in unhealthy food advertising targeted to Hispanic and Black youth.

- Dubowitz T, Acevedo-Garcia D, Lindsay AC, et al., Lifecourse, immigrant status and acculturation in food purchasing and preparation among low-income mothers, Public Health Nutr, 10 (4), 2007, 396–404. [PubMed: 17362536]
- 57. Berkowitz SA, Berkowitz TSZ, Meigs JB, et al., Trends in food insecurity for adults with cardiometabolic disease in the United States: 2005–2012, PLoS One, 12 (6), 2017, e0179172. [PubMed: 28591225]
- 58. Wallace AE, Young-Xa Y, Hartley D, et al. Racial, socioeconomic, and rural-urban disparities in obesity-related bariatric surgery. Obes Surg 2010;20(10):1354–60. [PubMed: 20052561]
- 59. Burgess E, Hassmen P, Welvaert M, et al. Behavioural treatment strategies improve adherence to lifestyle intervention programmes in adults with obesity: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Clin Obes 2017;7(2):105–14. [PubMed: 28199047]
- 60. Taveras EM, Marshall R, Sharifi M, et al. Comparative effectiveness of clinical-community childhood obesity interventions: a randomized clinical trial. JAMA Pediatr 2017;171(8):e171325. [PubMed: 28586856]
- 61. Ard JD, Carson TL, Shikany JM, et al. Weight loss and improved metabolic outcomes amongst rural African American women in the Deep South: six-month outcomes from a community-based randomized trial. J Intern Med 2017;282(1): 102–13. [PubMed: 28514081]
- 62. Katzmarzyk PT, Martin CK, Newton RL, et al., Weight loss in underserved patients a cluster-randomized trial, N Engl J Med, 383 (10), 2020, 909–918. [PubMed: 32877581]
- 63. Bennett GG, Steinberg D, Askew S, et al. Effectiveness of an app and provider counseling for obesity treatment in primary care. Am J Prev Med 2018;55(6): 777–86. [PubMed: 30361140]
- 64. Haire-Joshu D, Cahill AG, Stein RI, et al., Randomized controlled trial of home-based lifestyle therapy on postpartum weight in underserved women with overweight or obesity, Obesity, 27 (4), 2019, 535–541. [PubMed: 30900408]
- 65. Saxon DR, Iwamoto SJ, Mettenbrink CJ, et al., Anti-obesity medication use in 2.2 million adults across eight large health care organizations: 2009–2015, Obesity, 27 (12), 2019, 1975–1981. [PubMed: 31603630]
- 66. Burroughs VJ, Nonas C, Sweeney CT, et al. Self-reported weight loss practices among African American and Hispanic adults in the United States. J Natl Med Assoc 2010;102(6):469–75. [PubMed: 20575211]
- 67. Buchmueller TC, Levy HG. The ACA's impact on racial and ethnic disparities in health insurance coverage and access to care. Health Aff 2020;39(3):395–402.
- 68. O'Neil PM, Garvey WT, Gonzalez-Campoy JM, et al. Effects of liraglutide 3.0 mg on weight and risk factors in hispanic versus non-hipanic populations: subgroup analysis from scale randomized trials. Endocr Pract 2016;22(11):1277–87. [PubMed: 27482610]
- 69. Osei-Assibey G, Adi Y, Kyrou I, et al., Pharmacotherapy for overweight/obesity in ethnic minorities and White Caucasians: a systematic review and meta-analysis, Diabetes Obes Metab, 13 (5), 2011, 385–393. [PubMed: 21205118]
- 70. Egan BM, White K. Weight loss pharmacotherapy: brief summary of the clinical literature and comments on racial differences. Ethn Dis 2015;25(4):511–4. [PubMed: 26675365]
- 71. Estimate of bariatric surgery numbers, 2011–2020. American Society for Metabolic and Bariatric Surgery. (2022). Available at: https://asmbs.org/resources/estimate-of-bariatric-surgery-numbers. Accessed March 12, 2023.
- 72. Hecht LM, Pester B, Braciszewski JM, et al., Socioeconomic and racial disparities in bariatric surgery, Obes Surg, 30(6), 2020, 2445–2449. [PubMed: 31927686]
- 73. Zhao J, Samaan JS, Abboud Y, et al., Racial disparities in bariatric surgery postoperative weight loss and co-comorbiditysolution: a systematic review, Surg Obes Relat Dis, 17(10), 2021, 1799–1823. [PubMed: 34257030]
- 74. Bhogal SK, Reddigan JI, Rotstein OD, et al., Inequity to the utilization of bariatric surgery: a systematic review and meta-analysis, Obes Surg, 25(5), 2015, 888–899. [PubMed: 25726318]

75. Martin M, Beekley A, Kjorstad R, et al. Socioeconomic disparities in eligibility and access to bariatric surgery: a national population-based analysis. Surg Obes Relat Dis 2010;6(1):8–15. [PubMed: 19782647]

- Santry HP, Lauderdale DS, Cagney KA, et al., Predictors of patient selection in bariatric surgery, Ann Surg, 245(1), 2007, 59–67. [PubMed: 17197966]
- 77. Brooks ES, Bailey EA, Mavroudis CL et al., The effects of the affordable care act on utilization of bariatric surgery, Obes Surg, 31(11), 2021, 4919–4925. [PubMed: 34415519]
- 78. Ponce J, Woodman G, Swain J, et al. The reduce pivotal trial: a prospective, randomized controlled pivotal trial of a dual intragastric balloon for the treatment of obesity. Surg Obes Relat Dis 2015;11(4):874–81. [PubMed: 25868829]
- 79. Genco A, Lopez-Nava G, Wahlen C, et al. Multi-centre European experience with intragastric balloon in overweight populations: 13 years of experience. Obes Surg 2013;23(4):515–21. [PubMed: 23224509]
- 80. Sarr MG, Billington CJ, Brancatisano R, et al. The empower study: randomized, prospective, double-blind, multicenter trial of vagal blockade to induce weight loss in morbid obesity. Obes Surg 2012;22(11):1771–82. [PubMed: 22956251]
- 81. Ikramuddin S, Blackstone RP, Brancatisano A, et al. Effect of reversible intermittent intraabdominal vagal nerve blockade on morbid obesity: the ReCharge randomized clinical trial. JAMA 2014;312(9):915–22. [PubMed: 25182100]
- 82. Joseph RP, Keller C, Adams MA, et al., Print versus a culturally-relevant Facebook and text message delivered intervention to promote physical activity in African American women: a randomized pilot trial, BMC Wom Health, 15, 2015, 30.
- 83. Marcus BH, Dunsinger SI, Pekmezi D, et al., Twelve-month physical activity outcomes in Latinas in the Seamos Saludables trial, Am J Prev Med, 48(2), 2015, 179–182. [PubMed: 25442225]
- 84. Lohse B, Belue R, Smith S, et al., About Eating: an online program with evidence of increased food resource management skills for low-income women, J Nutr Educ Behav, 47 (3), 2015, 265–272. [PubMed: 25744780]
- 85. King AC, Bickmore TW, Campero MI, et al. Employing virtual advisors in preventive care for underserved communities: results from the COMPASS study. J Health Commun 2013;18(12):1449–64. [PubMed: 23941610]
- 86. Newsome FA, Gravlee CC, Cardel MI. Systemic and environmental contributors to obesity inequities in marginalized racial and ethnic groups. Nurs Clin North Am 2021;56(4):619–34. [PubMed: 34749900]
- 87. Bomberg EM, Palzer EF, Rudser KD, et al. Anti-obesity medication prescriptions by race/ethnicity and use of an interpreter in a pediatric weight management clinic. Ther Adv Endocrinol Metab 2022;13. 20420188221090009.
- 88. Bray GA, Heisel WE, Afshin A, et al., The science of obesity management: an endocrine society scientific statement, Endocr Rev, 39 (2), 2018, 79–132. [PubMed: 29518206]
- 89. Gudzune KA, Wickham EP 3rd, Schmidt SL, et al. Physicians certified by the American Board of Obesity Medicine provide evidence-based care. Clin Obes 2021;11(1):e12407. [PubMed: 33280270]
- 90. Stanford FC, Kyle TK. Why food policy and obesity policy are not synonymous: the need to establish clear obesity policy in the United States. Int J Obes 2015;39(12):1667–8.
- 91. Butsch WS, Kushner RF, Alford S, et al. Low priority of obesity education leads to lack of medical students' preparedness to effectively treat patients with obesity: results from the U.S. medical school obesity education curriculum benchmark study. BMC Med Educ 2020;20(1):23. [PubMed: 31992274]
- 92. Bajaj SS, Jain B, Kyle TK, et al., Overcoming congressional inertia on obesity requires better literacy in obesity science, Obesity, 30 (4), 2022, 799–801. [PubMed: 35244978]
- 93. Dietz WH, Burr LA, Hall K, et al. Management of obesity: improvement of healthcare training and systems for prevention and care. Lancet 2015;385(9986): 2521–33. [PubMed: 25703112]

KEY POINTS

 We should provide adequate access to obesity care to all those affected by the disease.

- There is a need for improved obesity health policies and precision medicine to treat obesity.
- Education about obesity, including management, weight stigma, and disparities in care, should be included in the education and training of all health care professionals.
- Every patient with obesity should be offered all appropriate treatment options regardless of age, race/ethnicity, or socioeconomic status.

CLINICS CARE POINTS

Evidence-Based Pearl #1

Education about obesity, including management, weight stigma, and disparities in care, should be included in the education and training of all health care professionals.

- Faculty in curricula development often cite a lack of time, knowledge, and practical guidelines as barriers to obesity education and training.³⁰ Current literature highlights the need to incorporate obesity education into health care professionals' curricula, given its increasing prevalence.^{54,61}
- Several interventions in health care disciplines have positively impacted the competency and skills surrounding obesity treatment. 1,6,23,30

Pitfall: Nevertheless, many graduates of health care professional schools continue to report discomfort in the management of obesity. ^{19,63} Inadequate preparation for the care of patients with obesity is particularly evident among primary care providers who play a vital role in the early identification and treatment of obesity ⁷⁴ International and national studies indicate that physicians, among other health care providers, receive minimal education about obesity.

Evidence-Based Pearl #2

Every patient with obesity should be offered all appropriate treatment options regardless of age, race/ethnicity, or socioeconomic status.

• The foundation of obesity management is lifestyle-based interventions (ie, nutrition, physical activity, and behavioral modification). The United States Preventative Services Task Force recommends patients with obesity receive intensive multi-component behavioral intervention, including multiple behavioral interventions (in either individual or group sessions), setting weight loss goals, improving diet or nutrition, physical activity sessions, addressing barriers to change, active use of self-monitoring, and strategizing on how to maintain lifestyle changes, ⁸⁷

Pitfalls: Unfortunately, lack of health care provider knowledge⁸⁸ and insurance coverage limits some patients' ability to receive appropriate treatment. In addition, disparities exist in who receives care for the treatment of obesity, even when insurance status among individuals is the same. ^{12,28,37}

Evidence-Based Pearl #3

We should provide adequate access to obesity care to all those affected by the disease.

Although lack of education and training among health care professionals
affects a patient's access to obesity care, geography is another barrier. Obesity
disproportionally affects those living in the Midwest and Southeast of the
United States.¹⁷ With the growing number of physicians certified in obesity
medicine via the American Board of Obesity Medicine (ABOM), several

- studies have evaluated the geographic distribution of ABOM diplomates concerning obesity prevalence. 32,67
- Although more physicians are becoming certified in obesity medicine to provide evidence-based care, ^{89,90} children and adults have difficulty accessing a physician to treat their disease, though this improves adequately. Pollack and colleagues noted the population-weighted median drive time to an ABOM diplomate decreased from 28.5 minutes in 2011 to 9.95 minutes in 2019.⁵⁹
- This decrease in driving time does not consider race/ethnicity, distrust of medical care, financial restraints, transportation concerns, or cost of living.⁶⁶
 In addition, those with severe obesity candidates for MBS may not have access to surgery due to geographic location.⁹¹

Areas for future research and treatment options

With the growing number of individuals with obesity, there is a continued need to address disparities in access and quality of care. With the increased popularity of the ABOM board certification examination, we propose greater emphasis and additional resources for obesity in education and training programs. 18,34

- *Improved obesity health policies*: In addition, the development of health care policies to expand coverage for obesity care would allow more patients to obtain adequate treatment of their disease. The Treat and Reduce Obesity Act (TROA) was initially introduced in 2013 to the Congress but has yet to pass. With the passage of this bill, effective treatment options will be available to all those with obesity at a lower cost. 92 TROA is one tool that could help reduce health inequities.
- A need for Precision medicine: Current literature also highlights disparities in response among different obesity treatment modalities. 93 For example, some dietary interventions are more effective in specific racial and ethnic groups. Likewise, distinct differences are noted in how patients respond to anti-obesity pharmacotherapy or surgical procedures. Precision medicine needs to have a growing role in obesity medicine.