

**A peer-reviewed version of this preprint was published in PeerJ on 29 September 2015.**

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Andersen JR, Hernæs UJV, Hufthammer KO, Våge V. 2015. Employment status and sick-leave following obesity surgery: a five-year prospective cohort study. PeerJ 3:e1285 <https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.1285>

# Employment status and sick-leave following obesity surgery: a five-year prospective cohort study

John Roger Andersen, Ulrikke J.V. Hernæs, Karl Ove Hufthammer, Villy Våge

**Background.** Severe obesity is a risk factor for lower participation in paid work, but whether employment increases and sick leave decreases after obesity surgery is not well documented. **Methods.** We assessed 224 Norwegian patients with severe obesity (mean age: 40; mean BMI: 49; 61% female) regarding employment status (working versus not working) and the number of days of sick leave during the preceding 12 months, before and five years after obesity surgery (75% follow-up rate). Logistic regression analysis was used to study preoperative predictors of employment status after surgery. **Results.** There were no change in the employment rate over time (54% versus 58%), but the number of days of sick leave per year was significantly reduced, from a mean of 63 to a mean of 26, and from a median of 36 to a median of 4. Most of this change was attributable to patients with zero days of sick leave, which increased from 25% to 41%. Being female, older, having low education level, receiving disability pension and not being employed before obesity surgery were important risk factors for not being employed after obesity surgery. The type of obesity surgery, BMI and marital status were not useful predictors. **Conclusions.** Our findings suggest that that undergoing obesity surgery is not associated with a higher rate of employment, although it may reduce the number of days of sick leave. Additional interventions are likely needed to influence the employment status of these patients. The significant preoperative predictors of not being employed in this study provide suggestions for further research .

2 **Employment status and sick-leave following obesity surgery: a**  
3 **five-year prospective cohort study**

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13

14 Key words: work, employment, sick-leave, obesity, bariatric surgery, predictors

## 15 Abstract

16 **Background.** Severe obesity is a risk factor for lower participation in paid work, but whether  
17 employment increases and sick leave decreases after obesity surgery is not well documented.

18 **Methods.** We assessed 224 Norwegian patients with severe obesity (mean age: 40; mean BMI: 49;  
19 61% female) regarding employment status (working versus not working) and the number of days of  
20 sick leave during the preceding 12 months, before and five years after obesity surgery (75% follow-up  
21 rate). Logistic regression analysis was used to study preoperative predictors of employment status after  
22 surgery.

23 **Results.** There were no change in the employment rate over time (54% versus 58%), but the number of  
24 days of sick leave per year was significantly reduced, from a mean of 63 to a mean of 26, and from a  
25 median of 36 to a median of 4. Most of this change was attributable to patients with zero days of sick  
26 leave, which increased from 25% to 41%. Being female, older, having low education level, receiving  
27 disability pension and not being employed before obesity surgery were important risk factors for not  
28 being employed after obesity surgery. The type of obesity surgery, BMI and marital status were not  
29 useful predictors.

30 **Conclusions.** Our findings suggest that undergoing obesity surgery is not associated with a higher rate  
31 of employment, but may reduce the number of days of sick leave. Additional interventions are likely  
32 needed to influence the employment status of these patients. The significant preoperative predictors of  
33 not being employed in this study provide suggestions for further research.

## 34 Introduction

35 Severe obesity, defined as having a body mass index (BMI)  $\geq 40.0$  or having obesity-related diseases  
36 and a BMI  $\geq 35$ , has been associated with lower employment rates, largely because of the detrimental  
37 effect of obesity on health (Andersen et al. 2010; Gripeteg et al. 2012; Hawkins et al. 2007; Hernæs et  
38 al. 2014; Neovius et al. 2008). Studies have also shown that obese subjects are at increased risk for  
39 being discriminated against when applying for jobs, for being passed over for promotion and for being  
40 made redundant (Puhl & King 2013). Thus, obesity has economic consequences both on an individual  
41 level and for families (Lund et al. 2011; Puhl & King 2013). Consequently, increasing participation in  
42 paid work can be an important effect of the treatment of severe obesity. Such treatment can not only  
43 improve the well-being of individuals and their families, but also reduce the increasing indirect  
44 obesity-related financial costs faced by many societies (Lehnert et al. 2013).

45 Obesity surgery can be successful in terms of weight loss, the resolution of comorbidities and  
46 improvements in quality of life (Andersen et al. 2014; Colquitt et al. 2009). One hypothesis is that  
47 obesity surgery also leads to higher rates of employment; however, this is not well documented.  
48 Several studies (Andersen et al. 2010; Hawke et al. 1990; Hawkins et al. 2007; Martin et al. 1991;  
49 Narbro et al. 1999; Turchiano et al. 2014; Wagner et al. 2007), but not all (Crisp et al. 1977; Gripeteg  
50 et al. 2012; Velcu et al. 2005), have suggested an overall positive effect of obesity surgery on  
51 employment status or sick leave. However, these studies were limited by small sample sizes (Andersen  
52 et al. 2010; Crisp et al. 1977; Hawkins et al. 2007; van Gemert et al. 1999; Velcu et al. 2005; Wagner  
53 et al. 2007), short follow-up periods (Andersen et al. 2010; Crisp et al. 1977; Hawke et al. 1990;  
54 Hawkins et al. 2007; Martin et al. 1991; Turchiano et al. 2014; van Gemert et al. 1999; Wagner et al.  
55 2007) or by the use of outdated obesity surgery procedures (Crisp et al. 1977; Gripeteg et al. 2012;  
56 Hawke et al. 1990; Narbro et al. 1999; van Gemert et al. 1999). We also know little regarding

57 preoperative predictors of employment status after obesity surgery. Providing additional information  
58 on these issues may be useful for further research on how to assist patients undergoing bariatric surgery  
59 to obtain and sustain participation in paid work.

60 In this paper we study employment status and sick leave before and five years after obesity surgery.  
61 We also study whether preoperative age, sex, marital status, education level, BMI, receipt of disability  
62 pension, employment status and type of obesity surgery predicted employment status five years after  
63 obesity surgery.

## 64 **Material & Methods**

65 Patients 18 years of age or older who were accepted for bariatric surgery at Førde Central Hospital in  
66 Norway between 2001 and 2008 were invited to participate in a prospective cohort study. Data were  
67 collected before and five years after surgery. The patients underwent biliopancreatic diversion with  
68 duodenal switch (BPD/DS), sleeve gastrectomy (SG), gastric bypass (GBP) or a conversion to  
69 BPDS/DS from gastric banding. During the first years of this study, BPD/DS was the primary choice  
70 of surgery at the hospital. This later changed to SG, as a part of a two-stage strategy, in which BPD/DS  
71 is regarded as a last-resort operation.

72 The study conforms to the principles outlined in of the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by  
73 the Regional Committee for Medical and Health Research Ethics in Western Norway (REK vest,  
74 ref. nr. 2013/1747).

## 75 **Assessments**

76 Employment status and days of sick leave were assessed by self-report questionnaires. The patients  
77 were asked whether any of their income came from paid work (coded as yes or no). They also reported

78 the number of days with sick leave in the preceding 12 months. The validity of assessing this  
79 information by self-report has been shown to be good in the Norwegian general population (Myrtveit  
80 et al. 2013). Income that came from paid work at the time of the question (coded as yes or no) was  
81 further validated by correlating this variable with the actual income based on public data from the  
82 Norwegian Tax Administration (Spearman rank correlation = 0.87,  $p < 0.001$ ) in a random subsample  
83 of the patients ( $n = 20$ ).

84 Body weight was measured in light clothing without shoes, with a precision of 100 grams. Height was  
85 measured in a standing position without shoes, with a precision of 1 centimetre. Weight and height  
86 were used to calculate the BMI ( $\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$ ). We also assessed the patients age, sex, marital status  
87 (married/cohabiting or not), education level (primary school, high school or university/college) and  
88 whether the patients received any disability benefit at the time of the question (coded as yes or no).

## 89 **Statistics**

90 We performed the statistical analyses using IBM SPSS version 22.0 for Windows and R version 3.1.1  
91 for Windows (Team 2014). All reported  $p$ -values are 2-sided, and  $p$ -values  $\leq 0.05$  are considered  
92 statistically significant. Continuous variables are reported as means, standard deviations and/or  
93 quartiles, whereas categorical variables are reported as counts and percentages. We used paired  $t$ -tests  
94 to test changes in continuous variables, and McNemar's test to test changes in binary variables. To  
95 explore predictors of unemployment, we fitted logistic regression models with employment status after  
96 five years as the dependent variable. Explanatory factors were the preoperative variables age, sex,  
97 marital status, education level, BMI, receipt of a disability pension, employment status and type of  
98 surgery. Age and BMI were included in the analysis as continuous variables after testing for non-

99 linearity. To detect any problems with multicollinearity in the predictors, we examined the generalised  
100 variance-inflation factors.

## 101 Results

102 By the five-year follow-up, we had data on 224 patients (75% follow-up rate) (Fig. 1, Table 1). The  
103 mean BMI changed from 49 (SD: 8) at baseline to 31 (SD: 6) five years after surgery ( $p < 0.001$ )  
104 (Fig. 2).

105 The overall rate of employment did not change over time, and was 54% at baseline and 58% at follow-  
106 up ( $p = 0.34$ ; Table 2). However, there were changes in employment status of the individual patients.

107 Of the 102 patients who were not employed before surgery, 31 (30%) had become employed after five  
108 years, and of the 122 patients who were employed before surgery, 23 (19%) had lost their employment  
109 after five years (Fig. 3).

110 Although the overall rate of employment remained unchanged, the number of days of sick leave per  
111 year was much reduced (Table 2). For patients who were employed at both time points, there was a  
112 reduction from a mean of 56 to a mean of 28 ( $p = 0.002$ ) and from a median of 40 to a median of 5.  
113 Note that these estimates could be biased, as one might expect that the patients losing their job from  
114 baseline to follow-up (and thus not included in the above calculations) were patients with a large  
115 number of days of sick leave. We therefore also report the mean number of days at each time point (for  
116 *all* patients employed at each time point). The results are very similar, a reduction from 63 days to 26  
117 days (means) or from 36 to 4 (medians). Most of this change was attributable to patients with zero days  
118 of sick leave, which increased from 25% (27/108) at baseline to 41% (46/113) at follow-up.



119 From the multiple logistic regression analysis we found that being female, being older, having a low  
120 education level (only primary school), receiving disability pension and/or not participating in paid  
121 work before surgery were important risk predictors for not being employed after obesity surgery.  
122 Marital status, BMI and type of obesity surgery were not useful as predictors (Table 3). The predictor  
123 estimates did not change substantially when adjusted for other predictors, and the predictors showed  
124 good explanatory power (Tjur's  $D = 0.45$ ) (Tjur 2009).

## 125 Discussion

126 The rate of employment in this cohort was much lower both before (54%) and five years after obesity  
127 surgery (58%) than in the general Norwegian population (83%) with similar age and gender  
128 distribution (Andersen et al. 2010). Even though the employment rate did not increase after obesity  
129 surgery, the number of days of sick leave decreased significantly.

130 The previous literature on the effect of obesity surgery on employment status and sick leave shows  
131 mixed results. However, direct comparisons with our study are difficult, due to clinically and  
132 methodological differences (especially in the length of follow-up) and because the social context in  
133 other studies may have influenced work availability, access to social benefits and paid sick leave.  
134 Regarding long-term studies ( $\geq 5$  years) we have only identified two studies other than ours that have  
135 reported participation or indicators of participation in paid work both before and after obesity surgery  
136 (Gripeteg et al. 2012; Velcu et al. 2005). The stable employment rate in the present study is  
137 comparable to findings of a US study (Velcu et al. 2005) that followed 41 patients who underwent  
138 GBP for five years, in which the rate of employment exhibited a statistically non-significant  
139 improvement from 34% to 44% ( $p = 0.13$ ). Finally, in a Swedish study bariatric surgery was associated

140 with a 17% ( $p = 0.01$ ) reduction in disability pension for up to 19 years in men but not in women  
141 (Gripeteg et al. 2012).

142 The reduction in sick leave in the present study was large, and suggests that productivity was increased  
143 due to health benefits among those who had a paid job. We have not identified other long-term studies  
144 ( $\geq 5$  years) on sick leave after obesity surgery. However, our findings are in agreement with a Swedish  
145 study reporting that patients aged 47–60 years who had undergone obesity surgery had 16% ( $p < 0.001$ )  
146 fewer sick days than controls 2–3 years postoperatively (Narbro et al. 1999). However, no effect was  
147 found for patients younger than 47 years. In our study, the reduction in sick leave was not influenced  
148 by age (data not reported).

149 Our finding that preoperative status with respect to employment and disability pension predicted  
150 employment status after obesity surgery was as expected. Our study also suggests that being female,  
151 being older and/or having low education level (only primary school) are important risk factors for not  
152 being employed after obesity surgery. Of these risk factors, only low education is modifiable. Thus,  
153 providing patients with education and training relevant for work as part of a rehabilitation program  
154 might be a useful intervention.

155 The strengths of the present study are the long follow-up period and an acceptable attrition rate.  
156 Furthermore, the surgery procedures represent modern obesity surgery. However, the study also has  
157 certain limitations. First, we did not have a control group. Two previous observational studies  
158 examined unemployed patients with severe obesity by comparing outcomes in patients who underwent  
159 obesity surgery versus those who did not (Turchiano et al. 2014; Wagner et al. 2007). Both studies  
160 found a significant improvement in employment rates in the surgical groups. However, we believe that  
161 this design may induce bias, as it does not include the possible risk that the obesity surgery is

162 associated with a reduction in the rate employment rate among those who were employed  
163 preoperatively. Thus, we believe that our naturalistic study provides more information on outcomes  
164 following obesity surgery, as it included *all* patients, regardless of preoperative employment status. It is  
165 possible that the rate of employment rate would have decreased significantly in a control group that  
166 was randomised to not having obesity surgery, especially if the alternative treatment had little effect on  
167 the patients' health. To conduct a randomised controlled trial in this field is demanding, both practical  
168 and ethically (Sugerman & Kral 2005). Because obesity surgery is currently the only known effective  
169 long-term treatment for severe obesity (Kwok et al. 2014), we likely have to rely on well-conducted  
170 prospective cohort studies (Wolfe & Belle 2014).

171 One other limitation of our study is that our primary outcomes were based on self-reports, and recall  
172 bias may have occurred. However, we believe that the face validity regarding employment status at the  
173 time of the question is good, as it is quite easy to know whether one is employed in paid work. We also  
174 hypothesised that being employed was associated with higher actual overall incomes, and this was  
175 supported by the validation approach described in the method section. On the other hand, we think that  
176 the information on the number of days of sick leave per year may have been influenced by recall bias.  
177 The recall bias could be systematic, for example in the form of an underestimation of the number of  
178 days of sick leave only after surgery. However, we believe that it is likely that the degree of recall bias  
179 was identical both before and after surgery. Thus, if the recall bias was unsystematic, our finding  
180 would remain valid.

181 Finally, we lacked information of the patient's employment status in the years prior to seeking surgical  
182 treatment for their obesity. It is not unlikely that long-term preoperative unemployment is associated  
183 with lower chances of getting employed following obesity surgery. Thus, the inclusion of this  
184 information would increase the value of future studies.

## 185 **Conclusions**

186 In conclusion, the employment rate remained stable while the number of days of sick leave was  
187 reduced after obesity surgery. The reduction in days of sick leave is encouraging, and should be further  
188 studied in terms of replication of results and cost-effectiveness. The significant predictors of  
189 employment status in this study offer suggestions for future research. The stories of patients who  
190 joined or left the workforce after obesity surgery could be studied using qualitative methods. Finally,  
191 we recommend looking for novel additional interventions intended to increase the rate of employment  
192 in this patient group.

## 193 **Acknowledgements**

194 We thank Lisbeth Schelderup and the rest of the staff at the Obesity Clinic at Førde Central Hospital  
195 for conducting the data collection of this study.

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**Figure 1** (on next page)

Figure 1. Study population flow chart

Patients with  
obesity surgery  
 $n = 298$

Old enough to be  
retired at end of  
follow-up  
 $n = 14$

Patients eligible  
 $n = 284$

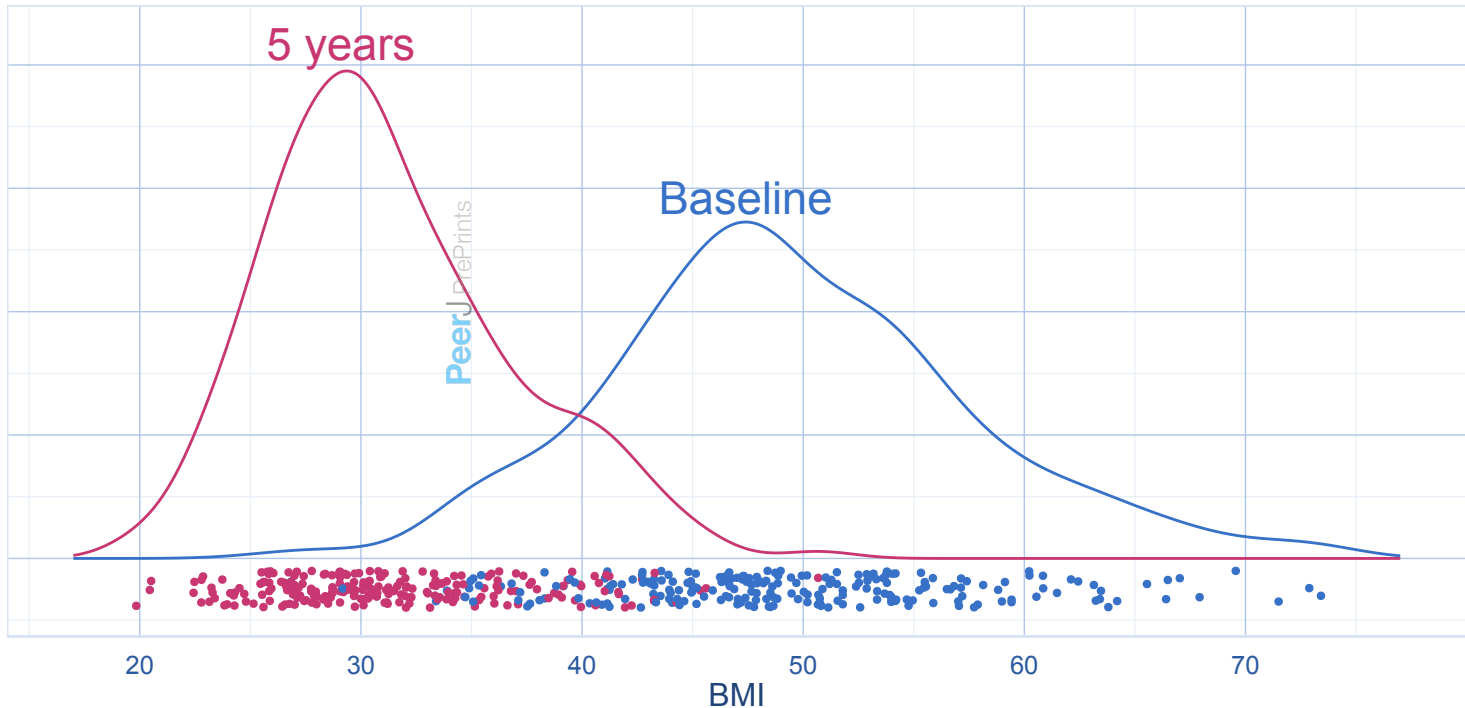
Missing employment  
status at follow-up  
 $n = 60$

Patients analysed  
 $n = 224$



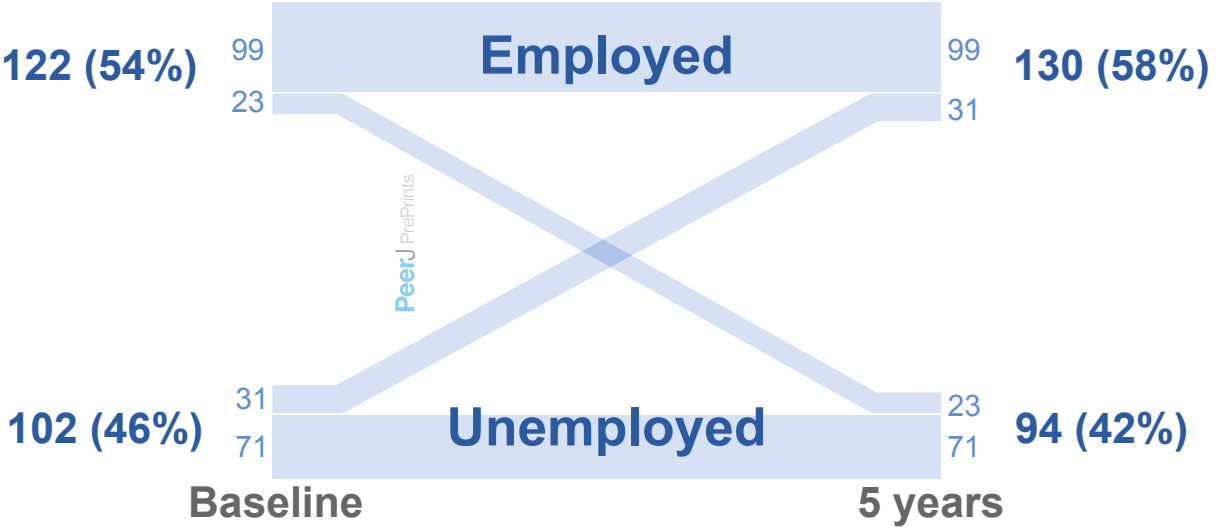
**Figure 2**(on next page)

Figure 2: Distribution of BMI before and five years after obesity surgery (density plots with jittered strip chart) ( $n = 224$  at baseline,  $n = 219$  at follow-up).



### **Figure 3**(on next page)

Figure 3: Parallel set plot showing the number and percentage of patients employed before and five years after obesity surgery. The widths of the lines are proportional to the number of patients



**Table 1** (on next page)

Table 1. Patient characteristics at baseline ( $N = 224$ )

	<b>Mean/count</b>	<b>SD/(%)</b>
Age	40	9
Sex		
Female	136	(61%)
Male	88	(39%)
Married/cohabitation	130	(58%)
Education ( <i>n</i> = 222)		
College/university	56	(25%)
High school	107	(48%)
Primary school	59	(27%)
BMI	49	8
Disability pension ( <i>n</i> = 216)	70	(32%)
Surgery method		
Biliopancreatic diversion with duodenal switch	154	(69%)
Sleeve gastrectomy	51	(23%)
Gastric bypass	5	(2%)
Revisions	14	(6%)

## **Table 2**(on next page)

Table 2. Employment status and days per years with sick leave before and five years after obesity surgery ( $n= 224$ )

\* There was missing data on number of days with sick leave for some patients who stated they were employed (14 patients at baseline and 17 patients at follow-up). One patient reported being employed but having 365 days of sick leave. This was truncated to 260 days, the maximum possible number of working days.

	<b>Before operation</b>			<b>5 years after operation</b>			<b><i>P</i>-value</b>
	Mean/ count	SD/ (%)	Quartiles	Mean/ count	SD/ (%)	Quartiles	
Employed	122	(54%)	–	130	(58%)	–	0.34
Days with sick leave per year*							
Patients employed at both baseline and follow-up (paired <i>t</i> -test, <i>n</i> = 75)	56	61	2; 40; 86.5	28	46	0; 5; 39	0.002
Patients employed at at least one time point ( <i>n</i> = 108 at baseline, <i>n</i> = 113 at follow- up)	63	73	1.5; 36; 108	26	45	0; 4; 35	–



### **Table 3**(on next page)

Table 3. Parallel set plot showing the number and percentage of patients employed before and five years after obesity surgery. The widths of the lines are proportional to the number of patients

\* OR > 1 means increased risk for *not being employed* in paid work five years after obesity surgery.

† Age and BMI was also included as non-linear terms (second-degree polynomials), with no notable changes in any estimated effects or *p*-values. We therefore only report the estimated linear effect.

‡ It was not possible to reliably estimate the effect of gastric bypass, as only 3 (out of 5) patients had complete follow-up data (all of them were employed at follow-up). The gastric bypass patients are therefore excluded from this model.

	Unadjusted model					Adjusted model				
	OR*	95% CI		P-value		OR*	95% CI		P-value	
Age (years)†	1.04	1.01	to	1.07	0.01	1.05	1.01	to	1.10	0.02
Sex					< 0.01					0.003
Female (ref.)	1	–	to	–	–	1	–	to	–	–
Male	0.34	0.18	to	0.61	< 0.01	0.31	0.13	to	0.68	0.003
Married/cohabitation	0.94	0.54	to	1.64	0.83	0.83	0.38	to	1.79	0.63
Education					< 0.001					< 0.001
University/college (ref.)	1	–	to	–	–	1	–	to	–	–
High school	1.64	0.79	to	3.55	0.20	1.13	0.45	to	2.90	0.80
Primary school	8.40	3.65	to	20.56	< 0.001	6.98	2.41	to	21.73	< 0.001
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )†	1.01	0.97	to	1.04	0.74	1.03	0.98	to	1.08	0.30
Disability pension before surgery	10.56	5.39	to	21.84	< 0.001	4.05	1.68	to	10.07	0.002
Not working before surgery	9.84	5.29	to	18.96	< 0.001	6.40	2.85	to	15.05	< 0.001
Treatment					1.00					0.25
Biliopancreatic diversion with duodenal switch	1	–	to	–	–	1	–	to	–	–
Sleeve gastrectomy	0.98	0.51	to	1.89	0.96	1.59	0.63	to	4.11	0.33
Revisions	0.98	0.31	to	2.97	0.98	0.38	0.06	to	1.94	0.26