BMJ Open Sport &

Exercise Medicine

BMJ Open Sport Exerc Med: first published as 10.1136/bmjsem-2022-001458 on 5 December 2022. Downloaded from http://bmjopensem.bmj.com/ on January 11, 2023 at University of Szeged Szte Egyetemi Konyvtar. Protected by copyright.

Zsolt Murlasits,¹ Krisztina Kupai,² Zsuzsanna Kneffel [©] ³

Role of physical activity and

metabolically healthy obesity: a

cardiorespiratory fitness in

narrative review

ABSTRACT

To cite: Murlasits Z, Kupai K, Kneffel Z. Role of physical activity and cardiorespiratory fitness in metabolically healthy obesity: a narrative review. *BMJ Open Sport & Exercise Medicine* 2022;**8**:e001458. doi:10.1136/ bmjsem-2022-001458

Accepted 23 November 2022

Check for updates

© Author(s) (or their employer(s)) 2022. Re-use permitted under CC BY-NC. No commercial re-use. See rights and permissions. Published by BMJ.

¹Institute of Sport Science and Physical Education, University of Pécs, Pecs, Hungary ²Department of Internal Medicine, University of Szeged, Szeged, Hungary ³Department of Health Sciences and Sport Medicine, Hungarian University of Sports Science, Budapest, Hungary

Correspondence to Dr Zsolt Murlasits; drmurla@gamma.ttk.pte.hu

Obesity has been associated with a multitude of metabolic disorders, often clustering with risk factors of cardiovascular disease and type 2 diabetes mellitus, hypertension, dyslipidaemia. Overall, obesity is a worldwide, growing health concern. However, a subgroup of obese individuals with a low burden of metabolic abnormalities have been identified and described as metabolically healthy obese (MHO). Whether the MHO phenotype is protective against obesity-related metabolic disorders in the long-term is presently unclear, and current research examining the potential transition has yielded inconsistent results. In this current narrative review, we aim to provide insights on the role of physical activity (PA) and cardiorespiratory fitness (CRF) in MHO. Lifestyle factors such as PA and CRF may influence the MHO phenotype. Limited studies have characterised energy expenditure and CRF in MHO and metabolically unhealthy obese. However, higher levels of PA, less sedentary behaviour and higher CRF have been observed in MHO individuals. Considering the multiple benefits of PA, it is high time to advocate this lifestyle change beyond its influence on energy balance in a weight loss programme to improve cardiovascular and metabolic risk factors irrespective of body weight and fat mass changes. Improved CRF via increased PA, especially exercise participation, while avoiding weight gain is not only a realistic goal, but should be the primary intervention for MHO populations to prevent the transition to an abnormal metabolic state.

INTRODUCTION

Epidemiological studies indicate the dramatic escalation of non-communicable diseases, namely type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM), cardiovascular disease (CVD) and cancer all over the world in the past decades. Available evidence points to the current obesity epidemic as the principle cause of this health crisis. Actually, current data have suggested that obesity is responsible for almost one in five cases of overall mortality.¹ Moreover, significant correlations between diabetes and obesity have been reported, while obese individuals exhibit a greater risk of developing CVD.²

WHAT IS ALREADY KNOWN ON THIS TOPIC

- ⇒ Although, metabolically healthy obese (MHO) may exhibit somewhat elevated risk compared with healthy lean individuals, they are protected against cardiometabolic disorders relative to their metabolically unhealthy obese (MUO) counterparts.
- ⇒ MHO individuals possess higher cardiorespiratory fitness (CRF) compared with their MUO counterparts, while decreased CRF is associated with greater visceral adiposity and worse metabolic profile irrespective of body mass index.

WHAT THIS STUDY ADDS

- \Rightarrow Studies using accelerometers have shown positive associations between physical activity (PA) and MHO.
- ⇒ Moderate-to-vigorous PA is necessary to elicit beneficial metabolic changes in obese individuals and prevent the transition to MUO status.

HOW THIS STUDY MIGHT AFFECT RESEARCH, PRACTICE OR POLICY

- ⇒ Increased PA in any form should replace and reduce sedentary time to decrease the chance of transitioning to unhealthy metabolic state.
- ⇒ Improved CRF via increased PA, while avoiding weight gain is not only a realistic goal, but should be the primary intervention for MHO populations to prevent the transition to an abnormal metabolic state.

Obesity is a multifaceted disorder with a complex pathophysiology as the related metabolic abnormalities largely arise from excess fat accumulation, insulin resistance and low-grade systemic inflammation.¹³ Interestingly, a subset of obese individuals with normal metabolic profile have been identified and described as metabolically healthy obese (MHO). The main problem in estimating the prevalence of MHO is the lack of consensus regarding its definition.⁴ The need for harmonising MHO definitions has been addressed recently by the BioShare-European Union project, to characterise clinical and metabolic factors associated with MHO and



1

compare key characteristics defining MHO.⁵ Although they have excess adipose tissue, they seem to be protected from obesity-related abnormalities, such as hyperinsulinaemia, dyslipidaemia, hypertension and diabetes.⁶⁷ The prevalence of MHO is approximately 20%-30% among the obese depending on the studied cohort and the exact definition of the metabolic disturbance.⁶⁸ It is also well established that MHO is more common in certain populations, such as women, younger adults and people with European descent.⁹ A common definition in accordance with the guidelines of the American Heart Association (AHA) considers MHO (<3 risk factors) and metabolically unhealthy obese (MUO) (≥3 risk factors or physician diagnosed diabetes and/or use of medications) based on the following criteria: waist circumference, ≥88 cm female, ≥ 102 cm male; triglycerides ≥ 1.7 mmol/L; highdensity lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol<1.03 mmol/L male, 1.3 mmmol/L female; systolic BP ≥130mm Hg and/or diastolic BP ≥85mm Hg; fasting blood glucose \geq 5.6 mmol/L.¹⁰ Alternatively, recent recommendations call for stricter criteria, that is, 0 of the above listed metabolic criteria with the exclusion of waist circumference.¹¹ In fact, more than 30 distinct definitions have been applied in clinical and research studies in the field.⁹ The majority of these investigations used the AHA or its alternative criteria mentioned above, but other components have also been included, such as C reactive protein (CRP), 2-hour blood glucose level during an oral glucose tolerance test and insulin sensitivity/resistance.⁴

Although some evidence indicates that the risk of CVD and mortality of MHO individuals is similar to what is expected in lean healthy controls, others have concluded that obesity per se regulates the risk of morbidity and mortality.^{7 12-14} First, an observational study reported that MHO did not increase CVD risk, while both lean and obese subject with two or more metabolic abnormalities experienced a greater hazard.¹⁵ This evidence indicates that metabolic disruption is a more important determining factor of morbidity and mortality than body fatness. On the other hand, Bell et al¹⁶ conducted a metaanalysis on the relationship between obesity and diabetes and concluded that regardless of metabolic health status, the risk of diabetes was elevated by fourfold in obese participants after adjustment for sociodemographic covariates compared with the normal weight cohort. However, it is increasingly evident that additional characteristics, such as cardiorespiratory fitness (CRF) should be considered to accurately describe the MHO phenotype and its health hazards.²

To summarise the current evidence, it appears that although they may exhibit somewhat elevated risk compared with healthy lean individuals, people with MHO are protected against cardiometabolic disorders relative to their MUO counterparts.¹⁷ This review does not intend to discount the benefits of weight loss in health enhancement and certainly does not consider MHO a benign condition, but highlights the vital role of physical activity (PA) and CRF improvement in a multidisciplinary

obesity treatment. Although, PA interventions result only in modest weight loss, the increased energy expenditure leads to the reduction of fat mass.^{3 18} Most importantly, the majority of the studies that analysed the relationship between mortality and metabolic health in obesity have not adjusted for CRF. When CRF was accounted for, no difference in mortality rate has been evident between MHO and normal weight individuals,^{11 19} thus as opposed to fatness the level of CRF is primarily responsible for the variances between these phenotypes.⁷ The most significant conclusion in the fatness versus fitness debate supports the notion that CRF cannot be excluded as a significant predictor of cardiovascular and metabolic health, because compared with high body mass index (BMI), low CRF has a larger impact on mortality risk.¹⁸ However, despite the increased attention and accumulating data in the past years, the underlying mechanisms of the MHO phenotype are not completely understood. There is an emerging consensus to shift the focus from body weight-centred approaches to lifestyle factors and more relevant metabolic/cardiovascular health parameters, such as CRF. Experts also recommend including CRF improvement as a primary end point of obesity treatment plans.^{18–21} This review emphasises the central role of PA and CRF by summarising the most current data that emerged since a systematic review, meta-analysis and other experts' opinions on this topic.^{17 19 20}

A narrative review of the literature was conducted with articles screened via PubMed, Embase and Scopus databases, using the following keywords and their combinations: "obesity", "metabolic health", "metabolically healthy obesity", "metabolically unhealthy obesity", "cardiorespiratory fitness", "physical activity" and "exercise". The reference lists of the relevant articles were also scanned for additional information.

CRF AND METABOLIC HEALTH

Seminal research reported that metabolic syndrome prevalence did not depend on CRF,²² and indeed CRF was shown to be similar between metabolically healthy and unhealthy individuals (determined by insulin sensitivity).^{23 24} However, more recent and larger inquiries disagree with these findings.^{13 25 26} Specifically, mortality risk increased with lower CRF in every BMI category,¹³ and decreased CRF was associated with greater visceral adiposity and worse metabolic profile irrespective of BMI.²⁶ Oral glucose tolerance test resulted in smaller glucose and insulin areas under the curve in participants with high CRF, who also demonstrated better plasma lipoprotein-lipid profiles, such as triglyceride, apolipoprotein B and total cholesterol/HDL ratio.²⁶ Subsequently, the current consensus is that high CRF is associated with decreased mortality risk, irrespective of BMI. $^{18\ 27\ 28}$ Indeed, a 13% and 15% reduction of allcause and CVD mortality respectively, for every metabolic equivalent (MET) increase in CRF has been observed.²⁹

With regard to MHO, research has shown that MHO individuals possess higher CRF compared with their MUO

counterparts, regardless of whether obesity was defined by BMI or body fat percentage.^{7 30} MHO women also had a significantly (17%) higher VO_{2max} compared with the cohort with metabolic syndrome.³⁰ Most importantly, a logistic regression analysis indicated that CRF was the strongest predictor of the MHO phenotype in this investigation. Wedell-Neergaard *et al*²⁵ reported recently that while CRF showed a positive association with HDL, it was inversely related to overall metabolic score and other risk factors, such as triglycerides, blood pressure in middleaged Danish men and women.

Others have shown that CRF, along with insulin sensitivity, insulin secretion and subcutaneous fat distribution was among the most important components that correlated with metabolic health in normal weight, overweight and obese populations.³¹ Therefore, it is unsurprising that overweight/obese individuals with high CRF demonstrate a lower incidence of metabolic abnormalities.^{7 13 16 32} Increased CRF over a 6-year period was negatively associated with changes in blood pressure, total cholesterol, triglycerides and waist circumference with a 7%-22% lower incidence of these risk factors for every 1 MET increase.¹² Furthermore, the maintenance or improvement of CRF attenuated the negative consequence of increased amount of adipose tissue on CVD risk.¹² More specifically, in obese patients with diabetes, low CRF was related to both myocardial infarction and all-cause mortality, which was independent of the degree of abdominal obesity.²² A recent cross-sectional analysis showed that participants with higher CRF also had lower liver fat content, which is a significant feature of MHO,³³ and further supports the importance of fitness level in metabolic health.³⁴ Despite that individuals with lower CRF demonstrate greater obesity and fat mass, one study showed no difference in the prevalence of hypertension or metabolic syndrome compared with those with higher CRF.²² On the other hand, a large investigation evaluating 3800 Korean men concluded that although the risk of systemic hypertension was elevated in MHO compared with healthy non-obese participants, moderate-to-high CRF significantly reduced this risk.³⁵

Disparity in the findings may be due to the limited clinical studies that have investigated the effects of CRF on metabolic abnormalities in obese individuals. Moreover, currently no standardised criteria exist for determining MHO,^{9 36} which may confound this research, and cause problems when interpreting the results. For instance, a new study in Taiwan reported that the CRF of MHO and MUO in military recruits did not differ.³⁷ However, the authors arrived at this conclusion based on the results of a field test (3 km run time), without directly measuring or calculating CRF values or even reporting the participants' body weight. Moreover, the MHO and MUO participants in this investigation barely showed any clinically meaningful difference in the classification of metabolic status and were all below the obesity classification of 30 kg/m^2 BMI.

Despite this, a recent meta-analysis concluded that CRF, PA and sedentary behaviour all contribute to the MHO phenotype, with CRF showing the largest difference between healthy and unhealthy obese.²⁰ This analysis included data from 19 unique studies for CRF and unequivocally stated that these attributes/lifestyle factors should be expressly considered as principal characteristics of the MHO phenotype. Importantly, a longitudinal study with 6 years follow-up indicated that maintaining or improving CRF was associated with a substantial lower risk (26%–52%) of developing metabolic abnormalities compared with reduced fitness during the same period.¹² This evidence has a robust practical relevance due to the transient nature of MHO^{8 38}; therefore focusing on CRF could provide a useful strategy to prevent the transition to serious metabolic abnormalities. Moreover, it is well established that by improving CRF, populations with the lowest fitness levels (obese individuals most likely belong to this category) would realise the greatest benefits regarding the reduction of mortality risk.¹⁸

PA and metabolic health

Current evidence comparing PA in MHO and MUO individuals is inconsistent.²⁰ ²³ ³² ³⁴ ³⁹⁻⁴⁵ Both differences³² ³⁹ ⁴¹⁻⁴³ ⁴⁵ and no differences²³ ³⁴ ⁴⁰ ⁴⁴ in PA between MHO and MUO have been reported. Leisure time PA was associated with MHO in the NHANES 1999-2004 study.³⁹ In addition, data from The Maastrich Study reported that MHO participants had higher daily stepping time compared with their unhealthy counterparts, with low intensity stepping time accounting for the observed significant difference between the groups.43 Accelerometer-based data also confirmed higher PA level in MHO when compared with the unhealthy obese, though MHO participants were still less likely to reach the recommended moderate-to-vigorous PA (MVPA) level than healthy, normal weight adults.⁴¹ Data from the German Health Interview and Examination Survey also indicated that compared with the MUO group, a higher percentage (30% vs 18.9%) of MHO engaged in at least 2.5 hours of PA a week.⁴⁶ Moreover, Ortega *et al*²⁰ recently conducted a meta-analysis for PA, which showed significantly higher MVPA for MHO individuals.

Male MHO participants as defined by Homeostatic Model Assessment were more regular exercisers compared with their MUO counterparts.^{47 48} Conversely, intensity, daily total time and percentage of participants meeting the PA guidelines did not differ between MHO and MUO.⁴⁵ Another survey data reported similar amounts of leisure time PA between obese men and women with or without metabolic syndrome.⁴⁹ However, a more recent and very large cohort study supported the positive association between PA and MHO.⁵⁰ In that investigation of more than 200 000 Taiwanese adults, there was a large difference (0.94 MET hour/week) between the MHO and MUO groups in self-reported PA.⁵⁰

Daily energy expenditure was not among the major determinants of transition to an abnormal metabolic

profile.^{26 43} Indeed, at that time only two studies showed that PA energy expenditure was higher in MHO compared with MUO individuals.^{39,51} However, new evidence confirms that when it is objectively quantified MHO adults expend more energy by PA.⁵² Variations in the findings are likely due to differences in methods employed to quantify PA (ie, objective vs subjective measurements). Several studies that did not detect differences in PA levels used self-reported PA questionnaires instead of objective measures, such as accelerometers.^{40 44 49} Studies employing accelerometers^{30 41 43 52} have shown positive associations between PA and MHO. An exception is the study of MacLeod *et al*^{\tilde{p}^3} which reported that total light PA and MVPA were not related to MHO. However, participants who met at least two of the four 24-hour Movement Guidelines Criteria (MVPA, light PA, sleep, screen time) were more likely to be metabolically healthy.⁵³

Interestingly, according to comparative data, higher PA level was only apparent in MHO versus unhealthy obese when measured objectively by accelerometer as opposed to a subjective questionnaire.⁴¹ Similarly, Numao *et al*⁵² newly reported that in obese Japanese males the favourable metabolic profiles of the MHO participants was associated with higher MVPA and PA energy expenditure. PA must be of a sufficient intensity (moderate to vigorous) to reduce visceral fat even in the absence of caloric restriction.⁵⁴ This may explain why some PA interventions mentioned above did not show any positive effects of PA on MHO. Furthermore, males may demonstrate greater loss in visceral adiposity from PA compared with females, while there is no difference between various ethnic groups,⁵⁴ which may also explain disparity in the findings. When assessing the various PA domains, total and recreational PA described the MHO phenotype, with a 76% and 72% likelihood of belonging to this group for those who accumulated 500 MET min/week total and recreational PA, respectively.⁵⁵ Though, further adjustments disclosed that only total PA was associated with MHO and only in middle-aged (45-59years) adults when stratified by age. Considering the high rate of transition from MHO to MUO state $^{8.56.57}$ and the fact that younger adults are more likely to exhibit a healthy metabolic state and resistance to unhealthy transition,^{9 58} this age group may be the ideal target for preventive interventions, with PA in the forefront.

Slagter *et al*^{\tilde{p}} described that MHO men and women had higher MVPA compared with their MUO counterparts, which was also reported in a Japanese study involving obese males.⁵² Similarly, young MHO also engaged in more daily minutes of vigorous PA than MUO participants, while middle-aged and older adults in more moderate PA.⁶⁰ Thus, it appears that MVPA is necessary to elicit beneficial metabolic changes in obese individuals and potentially prevent the transition to MUO status. Increased PA likely has a positive effect on metabolic health, with several benefits including improved glucose and lipid metabolism, and decreased blood pressure, and inflammation even in the absence of adipose tissue loss.^{3 61} These exercise-induced benefits were also confirmed by a new meta-analysis at least in healthy middle-aged and older adults.⁶² More frequent PA participation was also inversely related to CRP expression; individuals who performed PA at least five times a week, displayed 37% lower CRP concentration compared with those who engaged in PA only once in the same period.⁶³ Recent data in MHO individuals also support these findings as both total PA and light PA duration were negatively correlated with inflammatory cytokine levels, while increased light PA was associated with lower insulin resistance and C-peptide levels.⁶⁴ In fact, according to a previous systematic review, higher level of PA counteracts the increased CVD risk in MHO, thus investigations of the MHO phenotype should include PA assessments.⁶⁵

Bearing in mind the importance of body fat distribution and low-grade systemic inflammation in metabolic health, it is evident that increased engagement in PA and exercise training can provide a pragmatic solution for the prevention of metabolic abnormalities.^{66–70}

TRANSITION BETWEEN METABOLIC STATES

Many studies, especially those with long-term follow-up periods, implied that MHO is a transient condition.^{8 38 44 56 57} Early data indicated that after 6 years of follow-up 30.1%-47.8% of previously MHO participants became metabolically unhealthy depending on the criteria used to define the healthy phenotype.⁸ Schröder et al^{88} reported data of similar magnitude, that is, 49.2% of the healthy obese shifted to an abnormal metabolic profile during a 10-year period in their study with equal prevalence in male and female participants. Increased BMI and waist circumference were predictors of this transition, pointing to the crucial role of central obesity in metabolic health. A more recent investigation in Japanese Americans also indicated that the majority (64.7%)of MHO participants converted to an unhealthy profile over the 10-year follow-up period.⁴⁴ Baseline visceral fat was found to be the most significant predictor of this transition in this study, confirming previous data. Given the aforementioned importance of body fat distribution (ie, visceral fat) and MHO phenotype, reducing waist circumference appears prudent in preventing the transition from MHO to MUO.

Lifestyle was identified as an important component of the transition between metabolic states with healthy diet and absence of smoking contributing the most to the favourable metabolic profile.⁴⁴ Individuals who preserved their metabolic health over 12 years exhibited the same CVD risk as their healthy lean counterparts.⁷¹ However, studies disagree on the role of PA in metabolic health and its long-term maintenance. While some investigators reported different PA levels in healthy and unhealthy obese,^{20 41} others indicated no differences between these phenotypes or specified that daily energy expenditure was not among the major determinants of transition to an abnormal metabolic profile.^{23 44} Alternatively, another study has recently shown that after a successful, 16-week lifestyle programme, participants quickly transitioned back to MUO without the supervised exercise and diet intervention.⁷² New data also support the importance of PA in the transition between metabolic states. Even though the proportion of MUO increased from 22% to 32% in African obese adults after 10 years of follow-up, PA was inversely related to the escalation of metabolic syndrome.⁵⁶ Moreover, while overall PA decreased among all participants, those who remained the most active 10 years later were able to sustain better metabolic health along with unchanged BMI. Most importantly, a very large recent investigation demonstrated that higher level of PA increased the probability of transition from MHU to MHO.⁵⁰

CONCLUSIONS

Without effective lifestyle interventions MHO appears to be an intermediate stage towards completely unhealthy metabolic and disease states. On the contrary, maintaining a stable MHO profile, especially without weigh gain and increased abdominal fat can prevent the shift to metabolic syndrome and to the development of diabetes. First stabilising then reversing the early metabolic disturbances of obesity can result in attenuated progression and declining rate of T2DM. Although, even a small body fat loss, especially visceral fat, can result in substantial mortality and morbidity risk reduction, new evidence also indicates that targeting weight loss alone may not be the most effective approach of health improvement as many obesity-related hazards (eg, lipid profile, glucose metabolism/insulin action, endothelial function, inflammation) can be mitigated independently of body weight.⁷³⁻⁷⁶ Increased CRF and the change in diet composition and quality even in the absence of weight loss can bring about significant health benefits and better quality of life. Moreover, clinical trials indicated that significantly more participants achieved the recommended PA target to improve CRF than the weight loss goal of 5%-7% bodyweight.³ Another significant downside of weight loss interventions is the poor long-term success rate, which often manifests in weight cycling and is associated with high BMI.¹⁸ Therefore, future studies should elucidate the underlying mechanisms of the MHO phenotype along with the transition between healthy and unhealthy metabolic states, focusing on the role of CRF and PA.

Considering the multiple benefits of PA, it is high time to advocate this lifestyle change beyond its influence on energy balance in a weight loss programme to improve cardiovascular and metabolic risk factors irrespective of body weight and fat mass changes.^{18–21 77} Improved CRF via increased PA, especially exercise participation,⁷⁸ while avoiding weight gain is not only a realistic goal, but should be the primary intervention for MHO populations to prevent the transition to an abnormal metabolic state. In addition, new important data has been presented in a large study, demonstrating that increased PA can also promote the transition from MUO to MHO state.⁵⁰ Increased PA (occupational, transportation, household) should also replace and reduce sedentary time, which is the hallmark of unhealthy obesity and a major risk factor for early mortality and morbidity.

Contributors The authors listed qualify for authorship based on making one or more of the substantial contributions to the intellectual content of conception and design (ZsM); and/or acquisition of data (ZsM); and/or analysis and interpretation of data (ZsM, ZsK); and/or participated in drafting of the manuscript (ZsM, ZsK and KK) and/or critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content (ZsM, ZsK and KK). All authors provided critical feedback and helped shape the research, analysis and manuscript.

Funding This work was supported by the UNKP-21-5-SZTE-597 (K.K.) New National Excellence Program of the Ministry of Human Capacities.

Competing interests None declared.

Patient consent for publication Not applicable.

Provenance and peer review Not commissioned; externally peer reviewed.

Data availability statement The data that support the findings of this study are available on request.

Open access This is an open access article distributed in accordance with the Creative Commons Attribution Non Commercial (CC BY-NC 4.0) license, which permits others to distribute, remix, adapt, build upon this work non-commercially, and license their derivative works on different terms, provided the original work is properly cited, appropriate credit is given, any changes made indicated, and the use is non-commercial. See: http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/.

ORCID iD

Zsuzsanna Kneffel http://orcid.org/0000-0003-2317-2801

REFERENCES

- Lavie CJ, McAuley PA, Church TS, *et al.* Obesity and cardiovascular diseases: implications regarding fitness, fatness, and severity in the obesity paradox. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2014;63:1345–54.
- 2 Lavie CJ, Laddu D, Arena R, *et al*. Reprint of: Healthy Weight and Obesity Prevention: JACC Health Promotion Series. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2018;72:3027–52.
- 3 Gaesser GA, Angadi SS, Sawyer BJ. Exercise and diet, independent of weight loss, improve cardiometabolic risk profile in overweight and obese individuals. *Phys Sportsmed* 2011;39:87–97.
- 4 Tsatsoulis A, Paschou SA. Metabolically healthy obesity: criteria, epidemiology, controversies, and consequences. *Curr Obes Rep* 2020;9:109–20.
- 5 van Vliet-Ostaptchouk JV, Nuotio M-L, Slagter SN, *et al.* The prevalence of metabolic syndrome and metabolically healthy obesity in Europe: a collaborative analysis of ten large cohort studies. *BMC Endocr Disord* 2014;14:9.
- 6 Boonchaya-anant P, Apovian CM. Metabolically healthy obesity-does it exist? Curr Atheroscler Rep 2014;16:441.
- 7 Ortega FB, Lee D-C, Katzmarzyk PT, *et al.* The intriguing metabolically healthy but obese phenotype: cardiovascular prognosis and role of fitness. *Eur Heart J* 2013;34:389–97.
- 8 Soriguer F, Gutiérrez-Repiso C, Rubio-Martín E, et al. Metabolically healthy but obese, a matter of time? findings from the prospective Pizarra study. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2013;98:2318–25.
- 9 Smith GI, Mittendorfer B, Klein S. Metabolically healthy obesity: facts and fantasies. *J Clin Invest* 2019;129:3978–89.
- 10 Grundy SM, Cleeman JI, Daniels SR, et al. Diagnosis and management of the metabolic syndrome. *Circulation* 2005;112:2735–52.
- 11 Ortega FB, Lavie CJ, Blair SN. Obesity and cardiovascular disease. Circ Res 2016;118:1752–70.
- 12 Lee D-C, Sui X, Church TS, *et al.* Changes in fitness and fatness on the development of cardiovascular disease risk factors hypertension, metabolic syndrome, and hypercholesterolemia. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2012;59:665–72.
- 13 Kokkinos P, Faselis C, Myers J, et al. Cardiorespiratory fitness and the paradoxical BMI-mortality risk association in male veterans. Mayo Clin Proc 2014;89:754–62.
- 14 Barry VW, Baruth M, Beets MW, et al. Fitness vs. fatness on all-cause mortality: a meta-analysis. Prog Cardiovasc Dis 2014;56:382–90.
- 15 Hamer M, Stamatakis E. Metabolically healthy obesity and risk of allcause and cardiovascular disease mortality. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 2012;97:2482–8.

BMJ Open Sport Exerc Med: first published as 10.1136/bmjsem-2022-001458 on 5 December 2022. Downloaded from http://bmjopensem.bmj.com/ on January 11, 2023 at University of Szeged Szte Egyetemi Konyvtar. Protected by copyright.

- 16 Bell JA, Kivimaki M, Hamer M. Metabolically healthy obesity and risk of incident type 2 diabetes: a meta-analysis of prospective cohort studies. *Obes Rev* 2014;15:504–15.
- 17 Eckel N, Meidtner K, Kalle-Uhlmann T, et al. Metabolically healthy obesity and cardiovascular events: a systematic review and metaanalysis. Eur J Prev Cardiol 2016;23:956–66.
- 18 Gaesser GA, Angadi SS. Obesity treatment: weight loss versus increasing fitness and physical activity for reducing health risks. *iScience* 2021;24:1–25.
- 19 Lavie CJ, Ortega FB, Kokkinos P. Impact of Physical Activity and Fitness in Metabolically Healthy Obesity. J Am Coll Cardiol 2018;71:812–3.
- 20 Ortega FB, Cadenas-Sanchez C, Migueles JH, et al. Role of physical activity and fitness in the characterization and prognosis of the metabolically healthy obesity phenotype: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Prog Cardiovasc Dis* 2018;61:190–205.
- 21 Cadenas-Sanchez C, Migueles JH, Ortega FB. Further evidence on cardiorespiratory fitness as a key factor for the metabolically healthy obese phenotype independent of the race. J Adolesc Health 2019;64:290–1.
- 22 Halland H, Lønnebakken MT, Saeed S, *et al.* Does fitness improve the cardiovascular risk profile in obese subjects? *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis* 2017;27:518–24.
- 23 Brochu M, Tchernof A, Dionne IJ, et al. What are the physical characteristics associated with a normal metabolic profile despite a high level of obesity in postmenopausal women? J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2001;86:1020–5.
- 24 Karelis AD, Faraj M, Bastard J-P, et al. The metabolically healthy but obese individual presents a favorable inflammation profile. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2005;90:4145–50.
- 25 Wedell-Neergaard A-S, Krogh-Madsen R, Petersen GL, et al. Cardiorespiratory fitness and the metabolic syndrome: roles of inflammation and abdominal obesity. *PLoS One* 2018;13:e0194991–16.
- 26 Arsenault BJ, Lachance D, Lemieux I, et al. Visceral adipose tissue accumulation, cardiorespiratory fitness, and features of the metabolic syndrome. Arch Intern Med 2007;167:1518.
- 27 Katzmarzyk PT, Church TS, Janssen I, et al. Metabolic syndrome, obesity, and mortality: impact of cardiorespiratory fitness. *Diabetes Care* 2005;28:391–7.
- 28 Wei M, Kampert JB, Barlow CE, et al. Relationship between low cardiorespiratory fitness and mortality in normal-weight, overweight, and obese men. JAMA 1999;282:1547.
- 29 Kodama S, Saito K, Tanaka S, *et al.* Cardiorespiratory fitness as a quantitative predictor of all-cause mortality and cardiovascular events in healthy men and women: a meta-analysis. *JAMA* 2009;301:2024.
- 30 Poelkens F, Eijsvogels TMH, Brussee P, et al. Physical fitness can partly explain the metabolically healthy obese phenotype in women. *Exp Clin Endocrinol Diabetes* 2014;122:87–91.
- 31 Stefan N, Schick F, Häring H-U. Causes, characteristics, and consequences of metabolically unhealthy normal weight in humans. *Cell Metab* 2017;26:292–300.
- 32 Hamer M, O'Donovan G. Cardiorespiratory fitness and metabolic risk factors in obesity. *Curr Opin Lipidol* 2010;21:1–7.
- 33 Stefan N, Kantartzis K, Machann J, et al. Identification and characterization of metabolically benign obesity in humans. Arch Intern Med 2008;168:1609.
- 34 Bowden Davies KA, Sprung VS, Norman JA. Physical activity and sedentary time. *Med Sci Sport Exerc* 2019;51:1169–77.
- 35 Jae SY, Babu AS, Yoon ES, et al. Impact of cardiorespiratory fitness and risk of systemic hypertension in nonobese versus obese men who are metabolically healthy or unhealthy. Am J Cardiol 2017;120:765–8.
- 36 Jung CH, Lee WJ, Song K-H. Metabolically healthy obesity: a friend or foe? Korean J Intern Med 2017;32:611–21.
- 37 Wang SH, Chung PS, Lin YP. Metabolically healthy obesity and physical fitness in military males in the chief study. *Sci Rep* 2021;11:1–9.
- 38 Schröder H, Ramos R, Baena-Díez JM, et al. Determinants of the transition from a cardiometabolic normal to abnormal overweight/obese phenotype in a Spanish population. *Eur J Nutr* 2014;53:1345–53.
- 39 Wildman RP. The obese without cardiometabolic risk factor clustering and the normal weight with cardiometabolic risk factor clustering. *Arch Intern Med* 2008;168:1617.
- 40 Wiklund PK, Pekkala S, Autio R, *et al.* Serum metabolic profiles in overweight and obese women with and without metabolic syndrome. *Diabetol Metab Syndr* 2014;6:40.
- 41 Bell JA, Hamer M, van Hees VT, *et al*. Healthy obesity and objective physical activity. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2015;102:268–75.

- 42 Appleton SL, Seaborn CJ, Visvanathan R, *et al.* Diabetes and cardiovascular disease outcomes in the metabolically healthy obese phenotype: a cohort study. *Diabetes Care* 2013;36:2388–94.
- 43 de Rooij BH, van der Berg JD, van der Kallen CJH, *et al.* Physical activity and sedentary behavior in metabolically healthy versus unhealthy obese and non-obese individuals The Maastricht study. *PLoS One* 2016;11:e0154358–12.
- 44 Hwang Y-C, Hayashi T, Fujimoto WY, *et al*. Visceral abdominal fat accumulation predicts the conversion of metabolically healthy obese subjects to an unhealthy phenotype. *Int J Obes* 2015;39:1365–70.
- 45 Phillips CM, Dillon C, Harrington JM, et al. Defining metabolically healthy obesity: role of dietary and lifestyle factors. *PLoS One* 2013;8:e76188–13.
- 46 Truthmann J, Mensink GBM, Bosy-Westphal A, et al. Physical health-related quality of life in relation to metabolic health and obesity among men and women in Germany. *Health Qual Life Outcomes* 2017;15:1–7.
- 47 Yoo HK, Choi EY, Park EW, et al. Comparison of metabolic characteristics of metabolically healthy but obese (MHO) middleaged men according to different criteria. *Korean J Fam Med* 2013;34:19.
- 48 Velho S, Paccaud F, Waeber G, et al. Metabolically healthy obesity: different prevalences using different criteria. Eur J Clin Nutr 2010;64:1043–51.
- 49 Pajunen P, Kotronen A, Korpi-Hyövälti E, et al. Metabolically healthy and unhealthy obesity phenotypes in the general population: the FIN-D2D survey. BMC Public Health 2011;11:754.
- 50 Martinez-Gomez D, Ortega FB, Hamer M, *et al.* Physical activity and risk of metabolic phenotypes of obesity: a prospective Taiwanese cohort study in more than 200,000 adults. *Mayo Clin Proc* 2019;94:2209–19.
- 51 Jennings CL, Lambert EV, Collins M, et al. Determinants of insulinresistant phenotypes in normal-weight and obese black African women. *Obesity* 2008;16:1602–9.
- 52 Numao S, So R, Matsuo T, *et al.* A favorable metabolic profile in metabolically healthy obesity is associated with physical activity level rather than abdominal fat volume in Japanese males. *J Phys Ther Sci* 2021;33:137–41.
- 53 MacLeod L, Bouchard DR, Hébert JJ, et al. Association between a comprehensive movement assessment and metabolically healthy overweight obese adults. Sci Rep 2020;10:1–9.
- 54 Vissers D, Hens W, Taeymans J, et al. The effect of exercise on visceral adipose tissue in overweight adults: a systematic review and meta-analysis. PLoS One 2013;8:e56415.
- 55 Kanagasabai T, Thakkar NA, Kuk JL. Differences in physical activity domains, guideline adherence, and weight history between metabolically healthy and metabolically abnormal obese adults: a cross-sectional study. Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act 2015;12:1–12.
- 56 Kruger HS, Ricci C, Pieters M, et al. Lifestyle factors associated with the transition from healthy to unhealthy adiposity among black South African adults over 10 years. *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis* 2021;31:2023–32.
- 57 Mongraw-Chaffin M, Foster MC, Anderson CAM, et al. Metabolically healthy obesity, transition to metabolic syndrome, and cardiovascular risk. J Am Coll Cardiol 2018;71:1857–65.
- 58 Moussa O, Arhi C, Ziprin P, et al. Fate of the metabolically healthy obese-is this term a misnomer? A study from the clinical practice research Datalink. Int J Obes 2019;43:1093–101.
- 59 Slagter SN, Corpeleijn E, van der Klauw MM, et al. Dietary patterns and physical activity in the metabolically (un)healthy obese: the Dutch Lifelines cohort study. Nutr J 2018;17:1–14.
- 60 Camhi SM, Waring ME, Sisson SB, et al. Physical activity and screen time in metabolically healthy obese phenotypes in adolescents and adults. J Obes 2013;2013:984613.
- 61 Beavers KM, Brinkley TE, Nicklas BJ. Effect of exercise training on chronic inflammation. *Clin Chim Acta* 2010;411:785–93.
- 62 Zheng G, Qiu P, Xia R, et al. Effect of aerobic exercise on inflammatory markers in healthy middle-aged and older adults: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. Front Aging Neurosci 2019;11:98.
- 63 Kokkinos P, Myers J. Exercise and physical activity: clinical outcomes and applications. *Circulation* 2010;122:1637–48.
- 64 Al-Rashed F, Alghaith A, Azim R, et al. Increasing the duration of light physical activity ameliorates insulin resistance syndrome in metabolically healthy obese adults. *Cells* 2020;9:1189–13.
- 65 Roberson LL, Aneni EC, Maziak W, et al. Beyond BMI: The "Metabolically healthy obese" phenotype & its association with clinical/subclinical cardiovascular disease and all-cause mortality -a systematic review. BMC Public Health 2014;14:14.
- 66 Bellicha A, Baak MA, Battista F, et al. Effect of exercise training on weight loss, body composition changes, and weight maintenance

<u>ð</u>

Open access

in adults with overweight or obesity: an overview of 12 systematic reviews and 149 studies. *Obes Rev* 2021;22:1–13.

- 67 Buscemi S, Chiarello P, Buscemi C, et al. Characterization of metabolically healthy obese people and metabolically unhealthy normal-weight people in a general population cohort of the ABCD study. J Diabetes Res 2017;2017:1–9.
- 68 Gómez-Zorita S, Queralt M, Vicente MA, et al. Metabolically healthy obesity and metabolically obese normal weight: a review. J Physiol Biochem 2021;77:175–89.
- 69 Thompson D, Karpe F, Lafontan M, *et al.* Physical activity and exercise in the regulation of human adipose tissue physiology. *Physiol Rev* 2012;92:157–91.
- 70 Wiklund P. The role of physical activity and exercise in obesity and weight management: time for critical appraisal. J Sport Health Sci 2016;5:151–4.
- 71 Sun Z-lin. Quality assessment and improvement in diabetes care-an issue now and for the future. *Diabetes Metab Res Rev* 2010;26:446–7.
- 72 Corres P, Fryer SM, Aguirre-Betolaza AM, et al. A metabolically healthy profile is a transient stage when exercise and diet are not

supervised: long-term effects in the exerdiet-hta study. Int J Environ Res Public Health 2020;17:2830.

- 73 Battista F, Ermolao A, Baak MA, et al. Effect of exercise on cardiometabolic health of adults with overweight or obesity: focus on blood pressure, insulin resistance, and intrahepatic fat—A systematic review and meta-analysis. Obes Rev 2021;22:1–15.
- 74 Magkos F. Metabolically healthy obesity: what's in a name? *Am J Clin Nutr* 2019;110:533–9.
- 75 Després J-P, Obesity DJP. Obesity and cardiovascular disease: weight loss is not the only target. *Can J Cardiol* 2015;31:216–22.
- 76 Oktay AA, Lavie CJ, Kokkinos PF, et al. The interaction of cardiorespiratory fitness with obesity and the obesity paradox in cardiovascular disease. Prog Cardiovasc Dis 2017;60:30–44.
- 77 Verboven K, Hansen D. Critical reappraisal of the role and importance of exercise intervention in the treatment of obesity in adults. *Sports Med* 2021;51:379–89.
- 78 van Baak MA, Pramono A, Battista F. Effect of different types of regular exercise on physical fitness in adults with overweight or obesity: systematic review and meta-analyses. *Obes Rev* 2021;22:1–11.