

Accepted Manuscript

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PII: S0195-6663(17)30092-2

DOI: [10.1016/j.appet.2017.07.003](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2017.07.003)

Reference: APPET 3541

To appear in: *Appetite*

Received Date: 20 January 2017

Revised Date: 24 May 2017

Accepted Date: 6 July 2017

Please cite this article as: Sardahaee F.S., Holmen T.L., Micali N. & Kvaløy K., Effects of single genetic variants and polygenic obesity risk scores on disordered eating in adolescents – The HUNT study, *Appetite* (2017), doi: [10.1016/j.appet.2017.07.003](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2017.07.003).

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1 **Effects of single genetic variants and polygenic obesity risk scores on disordered eating**
2 **in adolescents – The HUNT study**

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20 Abstract

21 **Purpose:** Improving the understanding of the role of genetic risk on disordered eating (DE).

22 **Methods:** A case-control study including 1,757 (F: 979, M: 778) adolescents (aged 13-19
23 years) from the Nord-Trøndelag Health Study (HUNT), an ethnically homogenous Norwegian
24 population based study. Cases and controls were defined using a shortened version of the
25 Eating Attitude Test. Logistic regression was employed to test for associations between DE
26 phenotypes and 24 obesity and eating disorder susceptibility SNPs, and the joint effect of a
27 subset of these in a genetic risk score (GRS). **Results:** *COMT* was shown to be associated
28 with poor appetite/undereating (OR: 0.6, CI 95%: 0.43-0.83, $p = 0.002$). Independent of
29 obesity associations, the weighted GRS was associated to overeating in 13-15 year old
30 females (OR: 2.07, CI 95%: 1.14-3.76, $p = 0.017$). Additionally, a significant association was
31 observed between the GRS and loss of control over eating in the total sample (OR: 1.62, CI
32 95%: 1.01-2.61, $p = 0.046$). **Conclusions:** The *COMT* variant (rs4680) was associated with
33 poor appetite/undereating. Our study further confirms prior findings that obesity risk also
34 confers risk for loss of control over eating; and overeating amongst girls.

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36 **Keywords:** Disordered eating, EAT-12, obesity polygenic risk score, *COMT*, HUNT,
37 adolescents.

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44 **Abbreviations**

45 AN: Anorexia nervosa, *BDNF*: Brain derived neurotropic factor, BN: Bulimia nervosa, BED:
46 Binge eating disorder, *COMT*: Catechol-O-methyl transferase gene, DE: Disordered eating,
47 *DRD2*: Dopamine receptor D2 gene, ED: Eating disorder, *FTO*: Fat mass and obesity
48 associated gene, *GHRL*: Ghrelin, *GNPDA2*: Glucosamine-6-phosphate deaminase 2, *GRB14*:
49 Growth factor Receptor-Bound protein 14 gene, GRS: Genetic risk score, *5-HT2A*: Serotonin
50 2A receptor, *INSIG2*: Insulin induced gene 2, *KCTD15*: Potassium channel tetramerization
51 domain containing 15 gene, *MC4R*: Melanocortin 4 receptor gene, *MSRA*: Methionine
52 sulfoxide reductase A, *MTCH2*: Mitochondrial carrier 2 gene, *NEGR1*: Neuronal growth
53 regulator 1, OFSED: Other specified feeding and eating disorders, *OPRD1*: Opioid Receptor
54 delta 1 gene, *SEC16B*: Protein transport protein Sec16B, SNP: Single nucleotide
55 polymorphism, *TFAP2B*: Transcription factor AP-2 beta, *TMEM18*: Transmembrane protein
56 18.

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65 **Introduction**

66 Eating disorders pose a significant health risk due to physical and psychological
67 comorbidities (Swanson, Crow, Le Grange, Swendsen, & Merikangas, 2011) including
68 suicide rates as high as six times that of the healthy population (Arcelus, Mitchell, Wales, &
69 Nielsen, 2011). Prevalence rates of full-threshold eating disorders (EDs), Anorexia Nervosa
70 (AN), Bulimia Nervosa (BN) and Binge Eating Disorder (BED), are relatively low ranging
71 with lifetime prevalence estimates between 0.5-1.0 % for AN and 0.5-3.0 % for BN (Swanson
72 et al., 2011). The combined estimate of AN, BN and BED is ~5% (Stice, Marti, & Rohde,
73 2013). Compared to full-threshold eating disorders, residual diagnoses are more common with
74 Other Specified or Unspecified Feeding or Eating Disorders (OSFED) estimates of ~11.5%
75 where approximately 13% of adolescents will experience at least one eating disorder by age
76 20 (Stice et al., 2013).

77

78 The term Disordered Eating (DE) is generally used for individuals who show signs and
79 symptoms of ED without reaching the threshold for full blown eating disorders (Treasure,
80 Claudino, & Zucker, 2010). The prevalence of disordered eating is high amongst adolescents
81 (14-22%)(Micali, Solmi, et al., 2015; Treasure et al., 2010) with symptoms prospectively
82 predicting the development of eating disorders (Jacobi, Hayward, de Zwaan, Kraemer, &
83 Agras, 2004), and etiologic processes may be more closely linked to specific symptoms than
84 to broad diagnoses (Cuthbert, 2005).

85

86 Twin and adoption studies have found moderate to high heritability of AN, BN, and BED (h^2
87 estimates: mean ~50%, range ~28–88%) and disordered eating symptoms (h^2 estimates: mean
88 ~49%, range ~20–85%)(Culbert, Racine, & Klump, 2011) (Trace, Baker, Penas-Lledo, & Bulik,
89 2013). However, the genetic architecture of ED and DE is far from being fully understood and still
90 little is known concerning their neuropath physiology. There is, nevertheless, growing evidence
91 that neurotransmitter networks that include dopaminergic and opioid systems are highly involved
92 (Kessler, Hutson, Herman, & Potenza, 2016). Linkage studies have not been very successful but
93 have generally suggested several chromosomal regions of interest (Trace et al., 2013).
94 Furthermore, recent genetic studies with special emphasis on AN have failed to identify single
95 genes with large effects (Boraska et al., 2012; Boraska et al., 2014; Pinheiro et al., 2010; Pinheiro,
96 Root, & Bulik, 2009; Root et al., 2011) suggesting the inheritance complexity.

97
98 Obesity and eating disorders share a number of risk factors that apply to a broad range of
99 eating- and weight-related problems (Peckmezian & Hay, 2017). Studies indicate that
100 common neurobiological mechanisms of eating disorders and obesity exist which involve
101 regulation of food intake and emotion (Gorwood et al., 2016). Related to this, distortion of the
102 balance between hunger and satiety linked to the rewarding aspect of food are thought to be
103 linked to genetic predisposition. Interestingly, obesity susceptibility genes such as *FTO*,
104 *MC4R*, *BDNF*, (Locke et al., 2015; Speliotes et al., 2010) and *OPRD1* (Kvaloy, Kulle,
105 Romundstad, & Holmen, 2013) have also been associated to disordered eating associated
106 mechanisms (Micali, Field, Treasure, & Evans, 2015; Scherag, Hebebrand, & Hinney, 2010).
107 Through dopaminergic and opioidergic influences on reward-related processes, BED
108 individuals may be prone to elevated food-related hedonic responses (C. A. Davis et al.,

109 2009). The rs6277 polymorphism of the *DRD2* gene is more common in obese BED
110 individuals than in obese non-BED individuals (C. Davis et al., 2012; C. A. Davis et al.,
111 2009). In addition *DRD2* has been associated to weight gain from normal weight to
112 overweight/obesity longitudinally (Kvaloy, Holmen, Hveem, & Holmen, 2015).

113
114 The approach of polygenic risk scores has been successfully used to acquire evidence of genetic
115 effects when no single marker shows effects (Dudbridge, 2013). Obesity genetic risk scores (GRS)
116 based on the GWAS-identified SNP effects have yielded a quantitative measure of inherited
117 predisposition that has also been helpful in understanding obesity related traits and diseases.
118 Furthermore, genetic risk scores have been useful in revealing genetically based mechanisms
119 involved in unhealthy eating and weight gain related to eating behaviors such as appetitive traits
120 (Konttinen et al., 2015; Steinsbekk, Belsky, Guzey, Wardle, & Wichstrom, 2016) and satiety
121 mechanisms (Llewellyn, Trzaskowski, van Jaarsveld, Plomin, & Wardle, 2014).

122
123 Disordered eating is highly prevalent at adolescence and is prospectively predicting the
124 development of eating disorders at a later stage in life. Therefore, improved understanding of
125 its etiology which is known to involve both environmental and genetic factors common with
126 obesity susceptibility, is important. Our overall study aims were to investigate whether
127 disordered eating traits such as *uncontrolled appetite/overeating* and *poor*
128 *appetite/undereating* are associated with genes involved in obesity development, altered
129 reward processing, mood and appetite regulation and that these traits might share a genetic
130 vulnerability in common with obesity. To study this we used 24 single nucleotide
131 polymorphisms previously linked to either obesity, weight measures or eating disorders in an

132 adolescent sample of 1,757 individuals (13-19 year olds) participating in the Norwegian
133 Young-HUNT1 survey (1995-97). Improved knowledge of the molecular etiology involved
134 seems of particular importance as it enhances the understanding not only about the molecular
135 mechanisms involved, but also of an individual's susceptibility to future eating disorders.
136 More accurately being able to assess the progression of the symptoms earlier will hopefully
137 aid in preventing development to a full-threshold eating disorder.

138

139 **Material and methods**

140 **Study population**

141 The study participants were derived from the HUNT study, a large population based study
142 conducted in three phases in the Nord-Trøndelag County, Norway (Krokstad et al., 2012). The
143 HUNT study has one adult arm with participants aged ≥ 20 years (HUNT1 (1984-86) ,
144 HUNT2 (1995-97) and HUNT3 (2006-08) (Krokstad et al., 2013) and one adolescent arm
145 with participants aged 13 to 19 years (Young-HUNT1 (1995-97), Young-HUNT2 (2000-01)
146 and Young-HUNT3 (2006-08)) (Holmen et al., 2013). In all three surveys of the Young-
147 HUNT study, participants completed a comprehensive questionnaire during one school hour.
148 Specially trained nurses visited the schools and performed clinical examinations including
149 anthropometric measures and collection of buccal smears (Young-HUNT3).

150

151 Young-HUNT1 recruited a total of 8,983 participants (response rate 88%) who completed the
152 self-report questionnaire. Of the 8,983 individuals, only 8,433 had both anthropometric and

153 self-report data available for analysis. No blood samples were collected at this stage but blood
154 samples were later retrieved from 1,805 participants who, as young adults, took part in the
155 HUNT3 study (2006-08). Successful genotyping data was obtained from 1,801 participants in
156 our study. Characterization of this sub-sample is described elsewhere (Cuypers et al., 2012;
157 Kvaloy et al., 2013).

158

159 **Ethical approvals**

160 All research participants signed a written informed consent. In Norway, legal age for
161 providing consent is 16 years, therefore in the case of participants younger than 16, consents
162 were additionally given by parents or legal guardians. The Young-HUNT study was
163 approved by the Regional Committee for Ethics in Medical Research, the Norwegian Data
164 Inspectorate and Directorate of Health. All procedures followed were in accordance with the
165 ethical standards of the responsible committee on human experimentation (institutional and
166 national) and with the Helsinki Declaration of 1975, as revised in 2000.

167

168 **Eating Attitude Test and case group categorization**

169 The Eating Attitude Test (EAT) originally consisted of 40 items (Garner & Garfinkel, 1979),
170 but has subsequently been shortened to EAT-26 (Mann et al., 1983) and further to 12 items
171 (EAT-12) (Lavik, Clausen, & Pedersen, 1991) consisting of three factors; 1) dieting, 2)
172 bulimia and food preoccupation and 3) oral control. Since the EAT-12 was originally deemed
173 too long to be used in the HUNT study, a shortened 7-item version (EAT-7) missing the

174 dieting item was instead used to determine disordered eating in Young-HUNT1 (Bjomeliv,
175 Mykletun, & Dahl, 2002). The dieting factor was, however, included separately elsewhere in
176 the questionnaire. Bjørnelv et al. validated the 7-item version (EAT-7) towards the 12-item
177 version (EAT-12) (Bjomeliv et al., 2002) and reported a two-factor solution robust for age and
178 gender, EAT-A (poor appetite/undereating) and EAT-B (uncontrolled appetite/overeating),
179 when they investigated the psychometric properties of the EAT-7 in comparison with EAT-
180 12. Cronbach's alpha ranged from 0.48 to 0.69 for factor B items and from 0.41 to 0.51 for
181 factor A items (Bjomeliv et al., 2002). The internal consistency of EAT-A and EAT-B in a
182 recent study was, 0.512 and 0.695, respectively (Eik-Nes et al., 2015). The EAT-A consists of
183 the following items: 1) When I eat, I cut my food up into small pieces; 2) It takes me longer
184 than it takes others to finish a meal; 3) Other people think I am too thin and 4) I feel that
185 others pressure me to eat. The EAT-B consists of the following items: 1) When I first begin
186 eating, it is difficult to stop (overeating); 2) I spend too much time thinking about food (food
187 preoccupation); 3) I feel that food controls my life (loss of control eating). The four-point
188 Likert scale with answers: "never", "seldom", "often" and "always" was converted to a three-
189 point scale with the response options: never/seldom, often and always coded as 0, 1 and 2,
190 respectively. This gave a maximum score of 8 for EAT-A and 6 for EAT-B where the sum of
191 the individual item scores were calculated separately for EAT-A and EAT-B. Cut-off points
192 were as outlined by Bjørnelv et al, with scores ≥ 3 for EAT-A and ≥ 2 for EAT-B as
193 indicative of DE (Bjomeliv et al., 2002). Controls were those who scored less than the cut-offs
194 for both EAT-A and EAT-B.

195

196 **Anthropometric measurements**

197 Standardized measurements of height and weight were carried out by trained nurses during
198 data collection. Participants wore light clothing and no shoes. Weight was measured to the
199 nearest half kilo and height to the nearest cm. BMI (body mass index) was calculated as
200 weight (kg)/height² (m²). In interpreting BMI in adolescents considerations with regard to age
201 and sex were taken. BMI z-scores (zBMI) were calculated based on mean BMI and SD for
202 each Young-HUNT1 sex and year groups. BMI based weight group characterizations were
203 calculated according to Cole (Cole, Bellizzi, Flegal, & Dietz, 2000; Cole, Flegal, Nicholls, &
204 Jackson, 2007) and a summary and distribution within the EAT-A and EAT-B case groups
205 can be found in Table 1.

206

207 **Genetic material and candidate gene selection**

208 The following genetic variants for nine of the robustly associated obesity-susceptibility loci at
209 the time of the study design (early 2010) (Loos et al., 2008; Thorleifsson et al., 2009; Willer
210 et al., 2009) was included in our study: rs9939609, rs8050136, rs1121980 (in *FTO*),
211 rs12970134, rs17782313, rs17782313 (near *MC4R*), rs2815752 (near *NEGR1*), rs6548238
212 (near *TMEM18*), rs10938397 (near *GNPDA2*), rs10838738 (in *MTCH2*), rs4074134,
213 rs925946, rs6265 (near/in *BDNF*), rs987237 (in *TFAP2B*) and rs543874 (near *SEC16B*).
214 Additionally, the following 15 genetic variants previously associated to weight measures or
215 suggested to be implicated in eating disorders (Lindgren et al., 2009; Rask-Andersen,
216 Olszewski, Levine, & Schioth, 2010; Zhao et al., 2009) were added: rs11084753 (near
217 *KCTD15*), rs7566605 (near *INSIG2*), rs545854 (near *MSRA*), rs3734967 (near *5-HT2A*),
218 rs4680 (in *COMT*), rs569356 (near *OPRD1*), rs35683 (in *GHRL*), rs6277 (in *DRD2*),
219 rs10195252 (near *GRB14*). SNPs with lower call rates than 95% were excluded from our

220 study as well as individuals with > 10% genotypes missing. All included SNPs were in
221 Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium. Genotype frequencies were in agreement with previous
222 findings in European populations (NCBI, The National Center for Biotechnology
223 Information). Genotyping procedures and SNP characteristics are described elsewhere
224 (Kvaloy et al., 2013) and summarized in Table 2.

225

226 **Statistical analyses**

227 Descriptive characterizations and file preparations were done using IBM SPSS statistics
228 (version 21). PLINK was used for the genetic analyses (Purcell et al., 2007). In order to study
229 possible associations between single SNPs and outcome phenotypes, logistic regression
230 models were employed testing SNPs in additive models. Analyses were done on the whole
231 study sample and sex stratified samples. BMI was conceptualized as a confounder and z-
232 scores (zBMI) adjusted for in the single SNP conditional models.

233

234 The obesity Genetic Risk Scores (GRSs) was calculated by summing up the number of BMI-
235 increasing risk alleles both using weighted and unweighted GRS exposures. The unweighted
236 GRS (uGRS) was calculated by summing the number of risk alleles across 10 variants and the
237 weighted GRS (wGRS) was calculated by multiplying the number of risk alleles at each locus
238 (0, 1, 2) with the corresponding effect sizes, in kg/m² per allele (beta), as reported by
239 Speliotes et al. based on adult BMI associations (Speliotes et al., 2010). In the wGRS the loci
240 in or near *FTO* (rs1121980), *TMEM18* (rs6548238), *MC4R* (rs571312), *NEGR1* (rs2815752),
241 *GNPDA2* (rs10938397), *BDNF* (rs6265), *MTCH2* (rs10838738), *TFAP2B* (rs987237) and

242 *SEC16B* (rs543874) were identical or in high linkage disequilibrium ($r^2 > 0.8$, except for
243 rs6265 with $r^2 = 0.7$) to the ones published (Speliotes et al., 2010). In the uGRS, *KCTD15*
244 (rs11084753) which was not in high LD with the proxy analyzed ($r^2 = 0.5$) by Speliotes et al.
245 (Speliotes et al., 2010), was included. The risk allele effects are outlined in Table 2. GRS
246 analyses were performed using logistic regression models (IBM SPSS statistics, version 22).
247 An additional weighted GRS based on genetic data available through a very recent release
248 from the HUNT study was included in the study comprising all 32 obesity susceptibility
249 variants identified by Speliotes et al., (Speliotes et al., 2010).

250

251 In general, nominal significance was considered at $p < 0.05$. Additionally, a permutation-
252 based test using a basic Max (T) with 1000 permutation specified was used in order to adjust
253 for multiple testing of the SNPs in the single SNP analyses. The Max (T) permutation method
254 employed in PLINK for multiple testing equals stringency of Bonferroni correction when
255 single SNPs are tested. Odds Ratios (ORs) are presented with 95% confidence intervals (CI).

256

257 **Results**

258 **Study subjects**

259 Due to missing genotypes, weight measurements or data on EAT question items, only 1,757
260 (F: 979, M: 778) of the original 1,801 Young-HUNT1 research participants were available for
261 analyses. Among these, 88 cases with poor appetite/undereating (F: 53, M: 35)(EAT-A) and
262 152 cases with uncontrolled appetite/overeating (F: 111, M: 41)(EAT-B) were compared with
263 1,530 controls (see Table 1). Thirteen individuals positive for both EAT-A and EAT-B, were

264 included in the separate analyses. The mean age was slightly higher among the cases (16.1 –
265 16.3 years) compared to the controls (15.9 years) and the mean BMI was higher in the
266 uncontrolled appetite/overeating cases (22.18 ± 3.6) compared to the poor appetite/undereating
267 cases (20.07 ± 2.7). There was a higher percentage of overweight (15.8%) and obese (3.9%)
268 cases with uncontrolled appetite/overeating compared to the cases with poor
269 appetite/undereating (overweight: 4.6%, obese: 1.1%). Furthermore, a higher percentage of
270 underweight amongst cases with poor appetite/undereating (9.2%) compared to cases with
271 uncontrolled appetite/overeating (4.6%) was observed (Table 1).

272

273 **Associations between individual genetic variants and poor appetite/undereating (EAT-** 274 **A)**

275 In the minimally adjusted and BMI-conditionally adjusted model the G-allele of rs4680
276 (*COMT*) was protective towards suffering from poor appetite/undereating (EAT-A) in the
277 total sample even after multiple testing (OR: 0.60, CI 95% 0.43-0.83, $p = 0.002$ and adjusted
278 $p = 0.035$) (Table 3). The association was nearly significant after multiple testing in females
279 (OR: 0.54, CI 95% 0.35-0.82, $p = 0.004$ and adjusted $p = 0.074$), but not in males.

280

281 The following SNPs were significantly associated with poor appetite/undereating at nominal
282 levels: rs11084753 (*KCTD15*) in the minimally adjusted and BMI-adjusted model with an
283 OR: 1.44 (CI: 95% 1.04-1.99, $p = 0.027$ for the A-allele in the total sample with an even
284 stronger effect in males (OR: 2.09 (CI: 95% 1.24-3.51, $p = 0.006$), and rs35683 (*GHRL*) in the
285 total sample with an OR: 1.35, CI: 95% 1.00-1.83, $p = 0.049$ in the conditional model. The G-

286 allele of rs987237 (*TFAP2B*) was nominally significantly associated in females in the
287 conditionally adjusted model (OR: 1.72, CI: 95% 1.07-2.76, $p = 0.025$).

288

289 **Associations between individual genetic variants and uncontrolled appetite/overeating** 290 **(EAT-B)**

291 Only nominally significant associations were observed with the uncontrolled
292 appetite/overeating (EAT-B) trait as outcome. The G-allele of rs987237 (*TFAP2B*) was
293 positively associated in both minimally adjusted and adjusted models (OR: 1.37 (CI: 95%
294 1.03-1.84, $p = 0.034$) (Table 4). This association was only present in females in the stratified
295 analyses (OR: 1.44 (CI: 95% 1.02-2.05, $p = 0.040$)). The C-allele of rs35683 (*GHRL*) was also
296 positively associated (OR: 1.34 (CI: 95% 1.06-1.70, $p = 0.015$), while the rs10938397
297 (*GNPDA2*) G-allele had a protective effect (OR: 0.76 (CI: 95% 0.59-0.98, $p = 0.035$)). The T-
298 allele of rs1121980 (*FTO*) conferred risk of uncontrolled appetite/overeating (OR: 1.34 (CI:
299 95% 1.00-1.78, $p = 0.047$) in the female only adjusted model.

300

301 **Effects of the obesity polygenic risk scores (GRSs) on disordered eating**

302 Nine obesity risk loci were included in the weighted and 10 in the unweighted GRSs.
303 Association effects of the unweighted GRS (uGRS) were similar although weaker compared
304 to the weighted GRS (wGRS)(data for uGRS not show). Due to the significant sex interaction
305 identified between the wGRS and uncontrolled appetite/overeating (EAT-B), logistic
306 regression analyses were sex stratified. Overeating (EAT-B Stop) was additionally stratified

307 by age groups (13-15 and 16-19 years) due to significant wGRS*age interaction identified.
308 There were no significant associations detected between the wGRS and the poor
309 appetite/undereating sub-scale (EAT-A). Supplementary information is shown in Table S1
310 (Online resource). Independent of obesity associations, wGRS was significantly associated to
311 loss of control eating (EAT-B Cont) in the total sample (OR: 1.62, CI 95%: 1.01-2.61, p =
312 0.046) and a significant association was additionally observed between the wGRS and
313 overeating (EAT-B Stop) in 13-15 year old females (OR: 2.07, CI 95%: 1.14-3.76, p = 0.017).

314
315 Replication of the associations between the wGRS and various EAT-B sub-scale outcomes
316 were performed using an extended wGRS (wGRS-32) consisting of 32 obesity increasing
317 variants (Supplementary table S2 – Online resource). The directions of effects were in
318 agreement with results obtained with the 9-SNP wGRSs although mostly weaker except for an
319 additional significant association between loss of control eating, EAT-B Cont, and wGRS-32
320 in females (OR: 1.69, CI 95%: 1.06-2.70, p = 0.027). EAT-B Cont was also significantly
321 associated in the total sample (OR: 1.47, CI 95%: 1.02-2.12, p = 0.041) although not after
322 adjustment with BMI. The female-specific association was nearly significant independent of
323 obesity (p = 0.057). The significant association identified between the 9-SNP wGRS and
324 overeating (EAT-B Stop) in 13-15 year old females was nearly significant in the wGRS-32 (p
325 = 0.078).

326

327 **Discussion**

328 In this study we investigated the effect of 24 genetic variants previously associated with
329 obesity and eating disorders against poor appetite/undereating and uncontrolled
330 appetite/overeating in adolescents (13-19 years). We were able to show that the catechol-O-
331 methyltransferase (*COMT*) gene was associated to poor appetite/undereating (AN like
332 behaviors) while obesity susceptibility variants through genetic risk scores, which
333 quantitatively strengthens the effects compared to single variant effects, were associated to
334 uncontrolled appetite/overeating (BN and BED like behaviors).

335

336 The most interesting single variant finding was a protective effect displayed by the G-allele of
337 the *COMT* Val158Met variant rs4680 on poor appetite/undereating independent of BMI both
338 in the total and female only sample. The Val158Met *COMT* is a functional polymorphism
339 with enzyme altering activity. It has been extensively studied in relation to drug dependence,
340 bipolar disorder and schizophrenia (Ioannidis, Serfontein, & Muller, 2014) and seems to
341 influence the reward mechanisms linked to several aspects of aberrant eating (Donofry et al.,
342 2014; Yilmaz, Kaplan, Zai, Levitan, & Kennedy, 2011). In a recent large community sample,
343 the *COMT* Met allele was shown to confer risk both with regards to bulimic symptoms and
344 severe body dissatisfaction (Donofry et al., 2014).

345

346 Although not reaching robust significance levels for many of the single variants, the pattern of
347 genetic associations differed between the poor appetite/undereating and uncontrolled
348 appetite/overeating phenotypes. *KCTD15* (Potassium channel tetramerization domain
349 containing 15) and *GHRL* (Ghrelin) were both associated with poor appetite/undereating in

350 males and in the total sample for *KCTD15*. Previously, *KCTD15* has been associated
351 primarily with obesity (Speliotes et al., 2010) as well as being a gene of interest for eating
352 disorders (Rask-Andersen et al., 2010). Ghrelin, an orexigenic peptide secreted mainly from
353 the stomach, increases appetite and food intake and is found to be low in blood samples of
354 AN patients. However, association studies linking Ghrelin polymorphisms and ED have been
355 somewhat contradictory, with the majority reporting no significant associations with AN
356 (Trace et al., 2013). Deranged Ghrelin response to hedonic eating present in underweight
357 patients with AN has been suggested to be related to reduced motivation toward food intake
358 (Maria Monteleone et al., 2016). Our results give further support to the association between
359 Ghrelin and disordered eating and more specifically anorexic behaviors.

360

361 Many confirmed genetic loci for obesity are expressed in regions of the brain that regulate
362 energy intake and reward-seeking behavior. In the single marker testing performed here,
363 *TFAP2B* (Transcription factor AP-2 beta), *GNPDA2* (Glucosamine-6-phosphate deaminase 2)
364 and *FTO* (Fat mass and obesity associated gene) showed evidence of association with the
365 uncontrolled/overeating phenotype. In a recent study by Cornelis and colleagues (Cornelis et
366 al., 2014), the *TFAP2B* was shown to be associated with cognitive restraint which is
367 interesting with regards to DE. Furthermore, *GNPDA2* has previously been associated to
368 obesity (Heid, 2010; Speliotes, 2010), but not directly to eating behavior or eating disorders.
369 *FTO* has been shown to be of particular importance in regulating body weight as well as being
370 implicated in behavioral and cognitive aspects of overeating (Hinney & Volckmar, 2013).
371 Previously, *FTO* has been identified as a gene of interest with regards to AN (Boraska et al.,
372 2014), drive for thinness, bulimia and weight fluctuations (Boraska et al., 2012). In our

373 sample *FTO* was associated with DE in females at a nominal significance level after
374 adjustments for BMI suggesting a weight independent effect and underlining the notion of
375 *FTO*'s role in disordered eating (Micali, Field, et al., 2015). Whether this observed effect is
376 due to *FTO* affecting appetite and satiety is also interesting to explore. The *FTO* gene has
377 previously been shown to be associated with loss of control over eating (Muller et al., 2012;
378 Tanofsky-Kraff et al., 2009) and Micali and colleagues have very recently found strong
379 associations between binge eating and *FTO* (Micali, Field, et al., 2015) which further supports
380 the evidence of *FTO*'s effect on appetite and food intake. Satiety and hunger have also been
381 linked to eating behavior through *FTO* and *MC4R* (Melanocortin 4 receptor gene) (Stutzmann
382 et al., 2009; Wardle, Carnell, Haworth, & Plomin, 2008).

383

384 In our study the use of genetic risk scores enabled us to identify effects asserted by the
385 combined obesity susceptibility SNP-effect on the uncontrolled appetite/overeating trait
386 specified by EAT-B. Furthermore, we more specifically identified single EAT-B items to be
387 of particular interest. The obesity GRS was positively associated with loss of control eating
388 in the total sample, and with overeating in the young adolescent females. Previous findings of
389 Llewellyn and colleagues (Llewellyn et al., 2014) showed that the obesity GRS negatively
390 influenced satiety responsiveness in a sample of 10 year old children and suggested that
391 obesity risk variants influence adiposity via appetite regulatory mechanisms. This is not
392 unexpected as many of the so far identified obesity susceptibility SNPs are within or near
393 genes known to regulate appetite (Locke et al., 2015). Directions of effects were comparable
394 using the two weighted GRSs although weaker associations were in general identified when
395 the extended GRS including 32 obesity risk-variants was used. The discrepancy between the

396 GRS-analyses could be due to several reasons: 1) that the extended GRS included imputed
397 SNPs in addition to directly analysed ones which makes it less accurate, 2) that the addition of
398 more SNPs makes the distribution within the scores slightly different and 3) that the analyses
399 with the extended GRS included fewer cases compared to the GRS with nine SNPs.

400

401 Knowledge of factors influencing disordered eating among males is scarce. The prevalence of
402 eating disorders in males are additionally assumed to be much lower than in females although
403 binge eating disorder (BED), shows a life-time prevalence closer to 1:1 for males and females
404 (1.6% and 2.0%, respectively) (Hudson, Hiripi, Pope, & Kessler, 2007). Both sexes were
405 represented in our study and quite high proportions of DE comparing males to females were
406 identified; 39.8% (n=35 of a total of n=88) reported poor appetite/undereating (EAT-A) and
407 27.0% (n=41 of a total of n=152) uncontrolled appetite/overeating (EAT-B).

408

409 A strength of this study was that anthropometric and clinical measurements were carried out
410 by trained personnel avoiding the pitfall of under- or misreporting weight related measures
411 (Park et al., 2011). Additionally, the HUNT population comprises a very ethnically
412 homogenous sample. The main limitation in our study is the rather low number of cases as
413 expected for rare phenotypes or diseases and thus no statistical significance might be due to
414 lack of power. Also adding more obesity SNPs to the polygenic risk score would probably
415 more precisely capture the genetic predisposition. Furthermore, the effect sizes included in the
416 weighted GRS were based on adult effects which may not fully correlate with the adolescent
417 effects. However, there is evidence for higher heritability of BMI in children compared to

418 adults (Elks et al., 2012) which would imply larger effect estimates if using an obesity genetic
419 risk score based on adolescent effects.

420

421 The genetic data was only retrieved from the individuals who participated both at adolescence
422 in Young-HUNT1 (1995-97) and as young adults in HUNT3 (2006-08). At HUNT3 the
423 lowest participation rate was unfortunately within our target age group (20-39 years). In a
424 non-participant study performed after the HUNT3 survey (Langhammer, Krokstad,
425 Romundstad, Heggland, & Holmen, 2012), the prevalence of cardiovascular diseases, diabetes
426 mellitus and psychiatric disorders were higher in general compared to the participants
427 including all age groups. In the age group of 20-39 years the majority of non-participants
428 report not to have met due to “not receiving an invitation” (14.1%) or “not having the time to
429 meet” (62.6%). We therefore believe that our sample was representative of the Young-HUNT1
430 participants in general.

431

432 Several of the sub-analyses may be underpowered due to lack of cases to include. The sample
433 size required for detecting associations is known to be affected by disease prevalence, disease
434 allele frequency, linkage disequilibrium (LD), inheritance models and effect size of the
435 genetic variant. In our study, the disease prevalence is low and the effect sizes of each genetic
436 variant are probably low. In the case of the *COMT* variant rs4680 which was found to be
437 significantly associated to poor appetite/undereating, we know that the disease/risk allele
438 frequency is high (approximately 0.5). The rs4680 is additionally a functional variant
439 localised within the *COMT* gene, i.e. LD=1. Together these last-mentioned factors will affect

440 the statistical power positively. According to calculations done by Hong and Park (Hong &
441 Park, 2012) computing the effective sample size and statistical power using a web browser
442 program, Genetic Power Calculator developed by Purcell et al. (Purcell, Cherny, & Sham,
443 2003)(<http://pngu.mgh.harvard.edu/~purcell/gpc/>), the smallest sample size in a dominant
444 model to achieve 80% power using a single SNP in a case-control study under the
445 assumptions of 5% disease prevalence, 5% MAF, LD=1 and 1:1 case-control ratio is 90 cases.

446

447 Although we found a strong association between rs4680 *COMT* and the poor
448 appetite/undereating, the strength of evidence for many of the other associations were not
449 always backed by multiple testing. To our knowledge, our study is one of very few to study
450 gene associations of DE in a population based sample of European ancestry and our findings
451 show that even in a population based sample, there are indications of associations between the
452 dopaminergic and melanocortin pathways and DE. Our findings need further replication in
453 larger studies.

454

455 In conclusion, differential patterns of associations were found between sets of genetic markers
456 for poor appetite/undereating and uncontrolled appetite/overeating. The Val allele of the
457 *COMT*Val158Met variant rs4680 was protective for the poor appetite/undereating trait. The
458 obesity genetic risk score was independent of obesity association, risk-conferring for loss of
459 control eating and overeating, confirming the correlation between obesity susceptibility and
460 disordered eating.

461

462 **Conflict of interest**

463 Authors have no competing interests.

464

465

466 **Acknowledgment**

467 The Nord-Trøndelag Health Study (The HUNT study) is collaboration between HUNT
468 Research Center (Faculty of Medicine, Norwegian University of Science and Technology
469 NTNU), Nord-Trøndelag County Council, Central Norway Health Authority and Norwegian
470 Institute of Public Health. The study was supported by The Norwegian Research Council and
471 the Liaison Committee between the Central Norway Regional Health Authority and NTNU.
472 Short Visit Grant from the ESF program on Frontiers of Functional Genomics (No.3604) This
473 study was also funded through a PhD grant by Faculty of Medicine, NTNU.

474

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Table 1. Characteristics of the study sample.

	EAT-A	EAT-B	Controls
	Cases (n=88)	Cases (n=152)	(n=1530)
Gender, females, n (%)	53 (60.2%)	111 (73.0%)	823 (53.8%)
Age, mean (SD)	16.0 (1.8)	16.3 (1.8)	15.9 (1.8)
BMI¹, mean (SD)	20.07 (2.7)	22.18 (3.6)	21.27 (3.2)
wGRS², mean (SD)	1.79 (0.04)	1.81 (0.03)	1.79 (0.01)
uGRS³, mean (SD)	9.48 (0.22)	9.66 (0.16)	9.65 (0.49)
Underweight, n (%)⁴	8 (9.2%)	7 (4.6%)	95 (6.2%)
Normal weight, n (%)⁴	71 (81.6%)	108 (71.1%)	1148 (75.0%)
Overweight, n (%)⁴	4 (4.6%)	24 (15.8%)	192(12.5%)
Obese, n (%)⁴	1 (1.1%)	6 (3.9%)	31 (2.0%)

¹BMI; Body mass index, ²wGRS; weighted Genetic Risk Score, ³uGRS; unweighted Genetic Risk Score ⁴Weight categories defined according to IOTF (Cole, Bellizzi, Flegal, & Dietz, 2000; Cole, Flegal, Nicholls, & Jackson, 2007). Less cases in the weight groups due to missing weight data.

Table 2. SNP characteristics.

Nearby gene	CHR	SNP	BP	Call rate (%)	Minor allele	Other allele	MAF	Proxy SNP ¹	Per risk allele change in BMI, beta ²
OPRD1	1	rs569356	29009273	98.9	G	A	0.129		
NEGR1	1	rs2815752	72585028	99.7	G	<u>A</u>	0.406		0.13
SEC16B	1	rs543874	176156103	99.6	<u>C</u>	T	0.237		0.22
TMEM18	2	rs6548238	624905	99.4	T	<u>C</u>	0.166	rs2867125	0.31
INSIG2	2	rs7566605	118552495	99.0	C	T	0.357		
GRB14	2	rs10195252	165221337	99.4	C	T	0.417		
GHRL	3	rs35683	10303250	99.8	A	C	0.443		
GNPDA2	4	rs10938397	44877284	99.4	<u>G</u>	A	0.389		0.18
TFAP2B	6	rs987237	50911010	98.4	<u>G</u>	A	0.178		0.13
5-HT2A	7	rs3734967	154493441	99.6	G	A	0.292		
MSRA	8	rs545854	9897490	99.8	G	C	0.179		
BDNF	11	rs4074134	27603861	99.7	T	C	0.184		
BDNF	11	rs925946	27623778	99.4	A	C	0.348		
BDNF	11	rs6265	27636492	99.8	A	<u>G</u>	0.182	rs10767664	0.19
MTCH2	11	rs10838738	47619625	99.6	C	<u>T</u>	0.364	rs3817334	0.06
DRD2	11	rs6277	112788669	99.7	C	T	0.466		
FTO	16	rs1121980	52366748	99.7	<u>T</u>	C	0.446	rs1558902	0.39
FTO	16	rs8050136	52373776	99.8	A	C	0.411		
FTO	16	rs9939609	52378028	99.7	A	T	0.412		
MC4R	18	rs571312	55990749	99.1	<u>A</u>	C	0.268		0.23
MC4R	18	rs17782313	56002077	98.4	C	T	0.268		
MC4R	18	rs12970134	56035730	99.7	A	G	0.300		
KCTD15	19	rs11084753	39013977	99.2	A	<u>G</u>	0.307		
COMT	22	rs4680	18331271	99.7	G	A	0.449		

Minor allele is set as reference in the analyses. Effect allele underlined in SNPs used in the weighted GRS. ¹Effect sizes by Speliotes et al., 2010.

²Linkage disequilibrium between genotyped SNP and SNP used as reference in the weighted GRS analysis (Speliotes et al., 2010). CHR = Chromosome, SNP = Single nucleotide polymorphism, BP = Base pair, MAF=Minor allele frequency.

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Table 3. Association between EAT-A (poor appetite/undereating sub-scale) and genetic variants in the total study sample and sex stratified.

SNP	Putative gene	Minimally adjusted ¹ (n=88 cases)			Conditional on zBMI ² (n=88 cases)			Males conditional on zBMI (n=35 cases)			Females conditional on zBMI (n=53 cases)		
		OR (95% CI)	P	P ³	OR (95% CI)	P	P ³	OR (95% CI)	P	P ³	OR (95% CI)	P	P ³
rs569356	OPRD1	1.06 (0.69-1.64)	0.791	1	1.06 (0.69-1.64)	0.791	1	0.73 (0.33-1.62)	0.446	1	1.29 (0.76-2.18)	0.345	1
rs2815752	NEGR1	1.01 (0.74-0.38)	0.964	1	1.01 (0.74-1.38)	0.964	1	0.89 (0.54-1.44)	0.629	1	1.11 (0.74-1.67)	0.626	1
rs543874	SEC16B	1.10 (0.8-1.55)	0.601	1	1.10 (0.78-1.55)	0.605	1	0.66 (0.35-1.22)	0.185	0.980	1.49 (0.97-2.29)	0.072	0.796
rs6548238	TMEM18	0.90 (0.59-1.38)	0.623	1	0.90 (0.59-1.38)	0.626	1	0.64 (0.30-1.38)	0.258	1	1.07 (0.64-1.79)	0.795	1
rs7566605	INSIG2	1.18 (0.87-1.60)	0.297	0.998	1.18 (0.87-1.60)	0.296	0.997	1.25 (0.78-2.01)	0.348	1	1.13 (0.76-1.69)	0.552	1
rs10195252	GRB14	0.82 (0.60-1.13)	0.225	0.993	0.82 (0.60-1.13)	0.222	0.993	0.87 (0.52-1.45)	0.595	1	0.79 (0.53-1.18)	0.247	0.995
rs35683	GHRL	1.35 (1.0-1.83)	0.050	0.640	1.35 (1.00-1.83)	0.049	0.616	1.30 (0.81-2.08)	0.273	1	1.39 (0.94-2.05)	0.100	0.892
rs10938397	GNPDA2	0.92 (0.67-1.25)	0.586	1	0.92 (0.67-1.25)	0.588	1	0.93 (0.56-1.54)	0.786	1	0.91 (0.61-1.36)	0.660	1
rs987237	TFAP2B	1.33 (0.91-1.94)	0.136	0.940	1.33 (0.91-1.94)	0.136	0.952	0.91 (0.48-1.72)	0.769	1	1.72 (1.07-2.76)	0.025	0.393
rs3734967	5-HT2A	1.05 (0.75-1.47)	0.767	1	1.05 (0.75-1.48)	0.758	1	1.01 (0.59-1.74)	0.963	1	1.09 (0.71-1.68)	0.697	1
rs545854	MSRA	1.20 (0.81-1.76)	0.352	1	1.20 (0.82-1.76)	0.352	0.999	1.63 (0.92-2.88)	0.095	0.857	0.96 (0.57-1.62)	0.870	1
rs4074134	BDNF	1.34 (0.93-1.92)	0.115	0.908	1.34 (0.93-1.92)	0.117	0.918	1.40 (0.81-2.45)	0.231	0.999	1.29 (0.80-2.08)	0.302	0.999
rs925946	BDNF	1.02 (0.74-1.40)	0.929	1	1.02 (0.74-1.40)	0.920	1	0.86 (0.51-1.44)	0.555	1	1.14 (0.76-1.71)	0.535	1
rs6265	BDNF	1.23 (0.84-1.78)	0.284	0.997	1.23 (0.84-1.78)	0.287	0.997	1.22 (0.68-2.20)	0.508	1	1.23 (0.75-2.00)	0.409	1
rs10838738	MTCH2	1.00 (0.73-1.36)	0.988	1	1.00 (0.73-1.36)	0.989	1	0.88 (0.53-1.44)	0.609	1	1.09 (0.73-1.63)	0.675	1
rs6277	DRD2	0.99 (0.73-1.34)	0.930	1	0.99 (0.73-1.34)	0.931	1	0.69 (0.42-1.13)	0.140	0.953	1.24 (0.84-1.83)	0.280	0.999
rs1121980	FTO	0.99 (0.73-1.35)	0.960	1	0.99 (0.73-1.35)	0.961	1	0.84 (0.51-1.38)	0.492	1	1.10 (0.74-1.64)	0.629	1
rs8050136	FTO	1.09 (0.80-1.50)	0.572	1	1.09 (0.80-1.50)	0.571	1	0.98 (0.60-1.62)	0.946	1	1.17 (0.79-1.75)	0.438	1
rs9939609	FTO	1.09 (0.80-1.49)	0.588	1	1.09 (0.80-1.49)	0.587	1	0.97 (0.59-1.61)	0.917	1	1.17 (0.79-1.75)	0.438	1
rs571312	MC4R	0.87 (0.61-1.24)	0.436	1	0.87 (0.60-1.24)	0.433	1	0.96 (0.56-1.65)	0.894	1	0.79 (0.49-1.29)	0.346	1
rs17782313	MC4R	0.87 (0.61-1.25)	0.446	1	0.87 (0.61-1.24)	0.444	1	0.97 (0.57-1.66)	0.915	1	0.79 (0.49-1.28)	0.345	1
rs12970134	MC4R	0.84 (0.59-1.19)	0.319	0.999	0.84 (0.59-1.19)	0.318	0.999	0.76 (0.44-1.31)	0.328	1	0.89 (0.57-1.40)	0.627	1
rs11084753	KCTD15	1.44 (1.04-1.99)	0.027	0.434	1.44 (1.04-1.99)	0.027	0.407	2.09 (1.24-3.51)	0.006	0.093	1.14 (0.75-1.74)	0.532	1
rs4680	COMT	0.60 (0.43-0.84)	0.002	0.046	0.60 (0.43-0.83)	0.002	0.035	0.71 (0.42-1.20)	0.204	0.990	0.54 (0.35-0.82)	0.004	0.074

¹Minimally adjusted models are adjusted for sex. ²Conditional models were adjusted for age adjusted z-scores of BMI. Significant results

(P<0.05) are marked with bold. P³ - Empirical P-value corrected for multiple testing by 1000 permutations.

Table 4. Association between EAT-B (uncontrolled appetite/overeating sub-scale) and genetic variants in the total study sample and sex stratified.

SNP	Putative gene	Minimally adjusted ¹ (n=152 cases)			Conditional on zBMI ² (n=152 cases)			Males conditional on zBMI (n=41 cases)			Females conditional on zBMI (n=111 cases)		
		OR (95% CI)	P	P ³	OR (95% CI)	P	P ³	OR (95% CI)	P	P ³	OR (95% CI)	P	P ³
rs569356	OPRD1	0.80 (0.55-1.61)	0.237	0.994	0.80 (0.55-1.16)	0.238	0.995	0.79 (0.39-1.60)	0.512	1	0.80 (0.51-1.25)	0.324	1
rs2815752	NEGR1	0.91 (0.71-1.17)	0.471	1	0.91 (0.71-1.17)	0.470	1	0.82 (0.52-1.29)	0.382	1	0.96 (0.71-1.29)	0.776	1
rs543874	SEC16B	0.96 (0.73-1.27)	0.792	1	0.96 (0.73-1.27)	0.797	1	0.77 (0.44-1.32)	0.336	1	1.06 (0.76-1.47)	0.743	1
rs6548238	TMEM18	0.89 (0.64-1.24)	0.483	1	0.89 (0.64-1.23)	0.479	1	1.24 (0.70-2.21)	0.463	1	0.77 (0.51-1.15)	0.199	0.994
rs7566605	INSIG2	0.91 (0.71-1.16)	0.442	1	0.91 (0.71-1.16)	0.442	1	0.80 (0.50-1.28)	0.359	1	0.96 (0.71-1.28)	0.769	1
rs10195252	GRB14	1.00 (0.78-1.27)	0.979	1	1.00 (0.78-1.27)	0.975	1	1.06 (0.67-1.68)	0.809	1	0.97 (0.73-1.29)	0.838	1
rs35683	GHRL	1.34 (1.06-1.70)	0.014	0.257	1.34 (1.06-1.70)	0.015	0.274	1.43 (0.92-2.22)	0.109	0.916	1.31 (0.99-1.73)	0.059	0.719
rs10938397	GNPDA2	0.76 (0.59-0.98)	0.036	0.531	0.76 (0.59-0.98)	0.035	0.517	0.73 (0.45-1.19)	0.204	0.994	0.78 (0.58-1.05)	0.097	0.881
rs987237	TFAP2B	1.37 (1.03-1.84)	0.033	0.504	1.37 (1.03-1.84)	0.034	0.503	1.23 (0.72-2.11)	0.443	1	1.44 (1.02-2.05)	0.040	0.562
rs3734967	5-HT2A	0.97 (0.74-1.26)	0.811	1	0.97 (0.74-1.26)	0.794	1	0.97 (0.59-1.62)	0.922	1	0.97 (0.71-1.32)	0.822	1
rs545854	MSRA	0.91 (0.66-1.26)	0.587	1	0.92 (0.66-1.26)	0.588	1	0.94 (0.51-1.74)	0.844	1	0.91 (0.62-1.32)	0.607	1
rs4074134	BDNF	0.72 (0.52-1.01)	0.060	0.734	0.73 (0.52-1.02)	0.061	0.697	0.62 (0.32-1.21)	0.163	0.978	0.77 (0.52-1.13)	0.181	0.989
rs925946	BDNF	1.05 (0.82-1.35)	0.692	1	1.05 (0.82-1.34)	0.710	1	0.77 (0.47-1.26)	0.291	0.997	1.18 (0.88-1.57)	0.268	1
rs6265	BDNF	0.73 (0.52-1.02)	0.065	0.758	0.73 (0.52-1.02)	0.067	0.733	0.55 (0.27-1.12)	0.100	0.874	0.80 (0.54-1.18)	0.258	1
rs10838738	MTCH2	0.89 (0.70-1.14)	0.370	1	0.89 (0.70-1.14)	0.368	1	0.87 (0.55-1.39)	0.564	1	0.90 (0.67-1.21)	0.489	1
rs6277	DRD2	1.00 (0.79-1.27)	0.987	1	1.00 (0.79-1.27)	0.985	1	1.15 (0.74-1.80)	0.534	1	0.95 (0.71-1.25)	0.694	1
rs1121980	FTO	1.11 (0.87-1.42)	0.387	1	1.11 (0.87-1.42)	0.388	1	0.68 (0.43-1.10)	0.115	0.925	1.34 (1.00-1.78)	0.047	0.632
rs8050136	FTO	1.09 (0.85-1.39)	0.486	1	1.09 (0.85-1.39)	0.486	1	0.72 (0.44-1.16)	0.173	0.984	1.27 (0.96-1.70)	0.097	0.881
rs9939609	FTO	1.09 (0.85-1.39)	0.499	1	1.09 (0.85-1.39)	0.499	1	0.71 (0.44-1.15)	0.161	0.977	1.27 (0.96-1.70)	0.097	0.881
rs571312	MC4R	0.90 (0.68-1.19)	0.455	1	0.90 (0.68-0.46)	0.463	1	0.84 (0.50-1.40)	0.504	1	0.93 (0.66-1.30)	0.654	1
rs17782313	MC4R	0.91 (0.69-1.20)	0.504	1	0.91 (0.69-1.21)	0.512	1	0.85 (0.51-1.41)	0.520	1	0.94 (0.67-1.32)	0.709	1
rs12970134	MC4R	0.92 (0.70-1.20)	0.530	1	0.92 (0.70-1.20)	0.537	1	0.86 (0.53-1.40)	0.547	1	0.95 (0.69-1.30)	0.729	1
rs11084753	KCTD15	1.18 (0.91-1.52)	0.219	0.991	1.18 (0.91-1.52)	0.219	0.994	1.36 (0.83-2.23)	0.217	0.995	1.11 (0.82-1.50)	0.491	1

rs4680	COMT	0.87 (0.68-1.11)	0.269	0.996		0.87 (0.68-1.12)	0.277	0.998		0.78 (0.48-1.26)	0.313	1		0.91 (0.68-1.21)	0.503	1
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¹Minimally adjusted models are adjusted for sex. ²Conditional models were adjusted for age adjusted z-scores of BMI. Significant results (P<0.05) are marked with bold. P³ - Empirical P-value corrected for multiple testing by 1000 permutations. If significant after correction – underlined and marked with bold.

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Table 5. Association between EAT-B (uncontrolled appetite/overeating sub-scale) and the weighted genetic risk scores (wGRS) in the total and sex stratified samples.

Outcome	Sample (case, n)	Weighted GRS			
		Minimally adjusted		Conditional on BMI	
		OR (95% CI)	P	OR (95% CI)	P
EAT-B	All (n=152)	1.14 (0.77-1.71)	0.514	1.12 (0.74-1.68)	0.602
	Males (n=41)	0.57 (0.27-1.18)	0.131	0.58 (0.27-1.26)	0.170
	Females (n=111)	1.51 (0.93-2.46)	0.093	1.42 (0.87-2.32)	0.166
<i>EAT-B Think</i>	All (n=184)	1.23 (0.85-1.79)	0.270	1.19 (0.82-1.74)	0.362
	Males (n=41)	1.02 (0.49-2.14)	0.951	1.02 (0.48-2.17)	0.962
	Females (n=143)	1.30 (0.84-2.00)	0.238	1.23 (0.79-1.91)	0.357
<i>EAT-B Cont</i>	All (n=108)	1.66 (1.04-2.65)	0.034	1.62 (1.01-2.61)	0.046
	Males (n=37)	1.39 (0.64-3.05)	0.407	1.39 (0.61-3.13)	0.434
	Females (n=71)	1.81 (1.00-3.26)	0.050	1.75 (0.97-3.16)	0.063
<i>EAT-B Stop*</i>	All (n=270)	1.20 (0.88-1.64)	0.253	1.11 (0.81-1.53)	0.517
	Males (n=95)	1.06 (0.64-1.74)	0.832	0.95 (0.57-1.61)	0.861
	Females (n=175)	1.29 (0.87-1.92)	0.203	1.20 (0.81-1.80)	0.366
	Females 13-15 year (n=78)	2.21 (1.23-3.98)	0.008	2.07 (1.14-3.76)	0.017
	Females 16-19 year (n=97)	0.81 (0.47-1.41)	0.455	0.72 (0.41-1.27)	0.258

The weighted GRS was calculated by multiplying the number of risk alleles at each locus (0, 1, 2) with the corresponding effect sizes per allele, in kg/m² (beta), as reported by Speliotes et al. (Speliotes et al., 2010). The minimally adjusted models are adjusted for sex and age in the total sample and age in the sex-stratified samples. The conditional models were adjusted for sex, age and BMI in the total sample and for age and BMI in the sex-stratified samples. Significant results (P<0.05) are marked with bold. EAT-B sub-scale includes the following items: “When I first

begin eating, it is difficult to stop” (*overeating*, EAT-B Stop); “I spend too much time thinking about food” (*food preoccupation*, ETA-B Think); “I feel that food controls my life” (*loss of control eating*, EAT-B Cont). * Age group stratification due to significant sex-GRS interaction.

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