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Body mass variability is represented by distinct functional connectivity patterns

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40 **Abstract**

41 Understanding weight-related differences in functional connectivity provides key insight into
42 neurocognitive factors implicated in obesity. Here, we sampled three groups from human
43 connectome project data: 1) 47 pairs of BMI-discordant twins ($n=94$; average BMI-discordancy
44 $6.7 \pm 3.1 \text{ kg/m}^2$), 2) 47 pairs of gender and BMI matched BMI-discordant, unrelated individuals,
45 and 3) 47 pairs of BMI-similar twins to test for body mass dependent differences in between
46 network functional connectivity. Across BMI discordant samples, three networks appeared to be
47 highly sensitivity to weight status; specifically, a network compromised of gustatory processing
48 regions, a visual processing network, and the default mode network (DMN). Further, individuals
49 with a lower BMI relative to their twin had stronger connectivity between striatal/thalamic and
50 prefrontal networks ($pFWE = 0.04$) in the BMI-discordant twin sample. Cortical-striatal-thalamic
51 networks underlie regulation of hedonically motivated behaviors. Stronger connectivity may
52 facilitate increased regulation of decision-making when presented with highly rewarding, energy-
53 dense foods. We also observed that individuals with a higher BMI than their twin had stronger
54 connectivity between cerebellar and insular networks ($pFWE = 0.04$). Increased cerebellar-
55 insula connectivity is associated with caloric deprivation and, in high BMI individuals, is
56 associated compromised satiation signaling, thereby increasing risk for postprandial food intake.
57 Connectivity patterns observed in the BMI-discordant twin sample were not see in a BMI-similar
58 sample, providing evidence that the results are specific to BMI discordance. Beyond the
59 involvement of gustatory and visual networks and the DMN, little overlap in results were seen
60 between the two BMI-discordant samples. This may be a function of the higher study design
61 sensitivity in the BMI-discordant twin sample, relative to the more generalizable results in the
62 unrelated sample. These findings demonstrate that distinct connectivity patterns can represent
63 weight variability, adding to mounting evidence that implicates atypical brain functioning with the
64 accumulation and/or maintenance of elevated weight.

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66

67 Obesity is a chronic disease that affects two thirds of American adults (Flegal et al., 2012), and
68 is associated with increased risk of metabolic disorders (Alberti et al., 2005), cardiovascular
69 disease (Hubert et al., 1983), certain cancers (Calle and Kaaks, 2004), and mortality (Masters et
70 al., 2013). Moreover, the prevalence of obesity is rapidly increasing worldwide (Collaborators,
71 2017). This is highly concerning given that the efficacy of behavioral weight loss efforts are
72 highly variable (Dombrowski et al., 2014; Loveman et al., 2011). A myriad of internal
73 mechanisms and external stimuli influence weight regulation, such as: physiological appetitive
74 feedback systems, reinforcement-driven eating habits, emotional and social cues, and stimuli
75 from the food environment (Berthoud, 2006). Additionally, behavioral constructs such as
76 impulsivity (Nederkoorn et al., 2006), inhibitory control (Lavagnino et al., 2016), and taste
77 sensitivity (Grinker et al., 1972) are theorized to impact weight. The brain is the key integration
78 point for processing these factors, incorporating inputs (e.g., homeostatic satiation signaling,
79 attentional processing) to direct food intake behaviors, thereby influencing weight (Morton et al.,
80 2006). The examination of dynamic temporal correlations in the brain, i.e., functional
81 connectivity, has provided considerable insight into aberrant resting-state brain networks
82 (RSNs) associated with cognitive disease states (Van Den Heuvel and Pol, 2010; Woodward
83 and Cascio, 2015). Therefore, a thorough understanding of how neural patterning varies with
84 weight status is needed to accurately comprehend the neural correlates of weight regulation.
85 Limited, but increasing evidence identify an association between elevated weight and altered
86 neural functioning. For example, relative to healthy-weight, obesity was associated with
87 decreased functional connectivity within networks comprising the medial prefrontal cortex and
88 default mode network in response to viewing food stimuli (García-García et al., 2013), and with
89 decreased functional connectivity within prefrontal and feeding circuits during taste
90 administration of a milkshake (Geha et al., 2016). Further, obesity also was linked to increased
91 connectivity within the attention network (premotor areas, superior parietal lobule, and visual
92 cortex), as well as, stronger hypothalamic-striatal and amygdala-insular connectivity (Lips et al.,
93 2014). Collectively, these data provide early indication that elevated weight is associated with
94 disruption in the functional integration of brain regions and networks that encode aspects of
95 hedonically motivated behaviors, gustatory, and attentional processing. Though current data are
96 limited to smaller sample sizes, so a more detailed understanding of alterations in functional
97 connectivity associated with elevated weight in a large sample is warranted.

98 Genetic composition also influences functional connectivity of RSNs (Glahn et al., 2010;
99 Yang et al., 2016), which introduces variability in between-group investigations of weight status
100 and RSN connectivity. Twin study designs provide a powerful approach to control for
101 unmeasured confounds such as heritability and food environment during childhood when
102 examining factors impacting weight status (Barsh et al., 2000; Farooqi and O'rahilly, 2000). In a
103 small sample of female twins, increased weight was associated with decreased lateral functional
104 connectivity within the striatum, providing evidence that brain-level effects studied with twin
105 designs are sensitive to relatively small differences in weight (mean BMI-discordancy 3.96
106 kg/m²)(Doornweerd et al., 2017). Broadly, existing investigations of weight-related RSN
107 connectivity have compared effects between traditional BMI categories (e.g., healthy weight
108 [BMI=18.5-24.9] vs. overweight [BMI=25.0-29.9] vs. obese [BMI>30.0]) (García-García et al.,
109 2013; Geha et al., 2016; Lips et al., 2014). However, BMI categories are arbitrary in nature,
110 providing little clinically relevant information when individuals are near a cut-point). Importantly,
111 relatively small fluctuations in body weight can significantly impact health (Jensen et al., 2013).
112 For example, decreasing weight by ~5% can improve physiological predictors of disease
113 (Blackburn, 1995; Douketis et al., 2005). As such, weight loss interventions typically do not use
114 transitions from one BMI category to another as a metric of success, instead focusing on within-
115 subject weight change. A twin study design that draws on the strength of testing relative weight
116 difference, agnostic to BMI categories, can provide a highly sensitive test of the impact of
117 elevated weight on RSNs, while maintaining direct relevance to weight loss recommendations

118 and interventions. Despite these advantages, twin study designs are limited in their
119 generalizability to the population at large (Kukull and Ganguli, 2012). However, a parallel
120 analysis in unrelated, BMI-discordant individuals can be leveraged to test the impact of weight
121 on RSN connectivity simultaneously providing a metric of reliability and increasing
122 generalizability.

123 Here, we sought to determine weight dependent differences in functional connectivity
124 patterning. To achieve this aim, we performed functional connectivity analyses in three
125 independent samples: 1) a BMI-discordant twin sample; 2) a gender and BMI discordancy-
126 matched, unrelated sample; and 3) a BMI-similar twin sample. BMI dependent connectivity
127 patterns observed in both the BMI-discordant twin and unrelated samples allows for
128 identification of weight dependent altered functional connectivity that is stable across two
129 samples and is generalizable to unrelated individuals. Confirmation that these RSNs patterns
130 are not observed in a weight-similar sample provides support that the findings are not a result of
131 an unseen third-variable confound. Based on studies of obese versus healthy weight groups
132 (García-García et al., 2013; Geha et al., 2016), we hypothesized that differences in BMI-
133 discordant twins will be observed in connectivity between insular and frontal RSNs, specifically
134 where lighter twins will show stronger connections to the insular and frontal networks.

135

136 **Methods**

137 *Sample selection.* All data were drawn from the HCP900-PTN data release the from the Human
138 Connectome Project (HCP) (Van Essen et al., 2012). A visual representation of the sample
139 selection procedures can be seen in **Figure 1**. HCP900-PTN data included 820 young adults, of
140 which 410 individuals were twins. From the twin subsample, 98 participants were excluded from
141 the analysis due to: incomplete data/not having a corresponding twin in the sample ($n = 92$), or
142 a BMI < 18.5 ($n = 6$). Of the remaining 312 twin participants ($n_{\text{pairs}} = 156$), twin pair BMI
143 discordancy, defined as the between twin difference in BMI (heavier twin's BMI - lighter twin's
144 BMI), was calculated. BMI-discordant twin sample were defined using the upper tertile of BMI
145 discordancy of the 312 twin participants. **The BMI-similar twin sample was selected to have the**
146 **same proportion of monozygotic and dizygotic twin pairs as the BMI-discordant sample, while**
147 **maintaining a similar BMI in the twin pairs.** Thus, the two twin analyses included a total sample
148 of 188 twins ($n_{\text{pairs}} = 94$; 47 pairs per sample). To examine aspects of generalizability, unrelated,
149 BMI-discordant participants ($n_{\text{pairs}} = 47$) were also selected from the non-twin participants
150 included in the HCP900-PTN data. These unrelated, BMI-discordant pairs were selected to
151 match the discordant twin sample on both BMI and gender. No significant differences between
152 the unrelated and twin BMI-discordant samples were observed for gender, BMI, or BMI
153 discordancy (p 's > 0.95).

154

155 *Data description and preprocessing.* Participants completed 4 resting state functional MRI
156 (rfMRI) runs over two days (2 runs per day) totaling 58 minutes and 12 seconds of rfMRI data
157 per participant. Scanning details for this sample have been published previously (Van Essen et
158 al., 2012). Briefly each rfMRI scan used an eight-factor multiband, gradient echo EPI sequence
159 with the following parameters: TR: 720ms, TE: 33.1ms, flip angle: 52 degrees, slice thickness:
160 2.0mm (Van Essen et al., 2012). During the rfMRI scan, participants were instructed to look at a
161 light crosshair on a dark background projected into their field of view.

162 The human connectome project preprocessed all downloaded data in the HCP900-PTN
163 release, and no additional preprocessing was performed locally. The HCP preprocessing
164 pipeline is extensively published elsewhere and further documented is available on their website
165 (<https://www.humanconnectome.org/study/hcp-young-adult/documentation>) and therefore will
166 only be summarized here. Data were preprocessed using the recommended minimal
167 preprocessing pipeline (Glasser et al., 2013). Independent component analysis (ICA) and FIX
168 (FMRIB ICA-based X-noisifer) were used to assess and remove noise per participant per run

169 (Salimi-Khorshidi et al., 2014; Smith et al., 2013). Individual participant data was registered
170 using the areal-feature-based alignment and the Multimodal Surface Matching algorithm
171 ('MSMAll') (Glasser et al., 2016; Robinson et al., 2014).

172
173 *Group ICA.* MELODIC's Incremental Group-PCA (MIGP) was used to generate dense
174 connectomes of all participants' individual timeseries (Smith et al., 2014). This dense
175 connectome was then parcellated using group-ICA to create spatial-ICA network maps at
176 dimensionalities of 15, 25, 50, 100, 200, and 300 distinct components (Glasser et al., 2016).
177 From the HCP documentation, each component is a continuous range of values that may
178 contain multiple spatially separate anatomical regions. The higher the number of components
179 per map in general means the significant area per component is smaller. Given these traits of
180 the network maps, the 25 and 100 component network maps were selected to examine the
181 larger and more established resting state networks (using the 25 dimensionality), as well as
182 potentially discreet regions that may drive effects (using the 100 dimensionality) (Ray et al.,
183 2013). Given that multiple components in a given network map may include the same
184 anatomical region, components will be referred to as independent components (ICs) with their
185 number and anatomical region(s) comprised within e.g., occipital pole (IC 9) relative to occipital
186 pole (IC 3). **Independent components that were considered to be noise were identified by two
187 independent researchers. Components were flagged as noise when BOLD activity was primarily
188 following the gyri and/or solely following the surface of brain/skull (Poldrack et al., 2011). As a
189 result, ICs 18 and 24 were determined to be noise and were removed from consideration in the
190 25-component parcellation.**

191
192 *Individual component timeseries.* Per dimensionality, individual participant timeseries were
193 concatenated and spatially mapped to the corresponding network map described above. This
194 created a single timeseries per component per participant. Therefore, each participant had a
195 component timeseries made up of the 4800 time points (1200 time points over 4 runs) by the
196 number of components (15, 25, 50, 100, 200, and 300). For this analysis, each participant had a
197 component timeseries made up of either 4800x25 or 4800x100.

198
199 *Creation of netmats.* The 25 and 100 component group network maps were each regressed
200 against the corresponding individual component timeseries using the "dual-regression stage-1"
201 approach to create individual participant network matrices (netmats) (Filippini et al., 2009).

202
203 *Heritability factor calculation.* To determine the effect of heritability on connectivity of each
204 network, a heritability score (H_b^2) was calculated for each network, based on Falconer's formula
205 (Falconer and Mackay, 1996).

206
$$H_b^2 = 2(r_{mz} - r_{dz})$$

207 **We calculated the correlation between each twin pair per component in the netmat (both 25 and
208 100 dimensionalities separately) and averaged the correlations in both the monozygotic and
209 dizygotic twin groups respectively to create two average correlation matrices: monozygotic (r_{mz})
210 and dizygotic (r_{dz}). The difference between the r_{mz} and r_{dz} matrices was calculated and multiplied
211 by 2. The resulting heritability matrix contained a H_b^2 value for each pairwise connection
212 between components. Individual level netmats were then each weighted by the H_b^2 matrix to
213 adjust for heritability effects.**

214
215 *Statistical analyses.* FSLNets (Version 0.6, FMRIB, Oxford, UK) was used to assess BMI-
216 dependent differences between RSN connectivity. For each sample (BMI-discordant twins, BMI-
217 similar twins, and unrelated BMI-discordant pairs), full correlations with normalized covariances
218 were run on the netmats described above to create a correlation matrix. A single group paired T

219 test was performed on the correlation matrices with the following contrasts: 1) higher BMI
220 individual compared to lower BMI individual (higher BMI > lower BMI), and 2) lower BMI
221 individual compared to higher BMI individual (lower BMI > higher BMI). To correct for potential
222 false positives, non-parametric permutation testing was used through FSL's randomise tool with
223 10,000 permutations per twin pair (or unrelated pair) (Winkler et al., 2014). Results were
224 considered significance at $p_{FWE} < 0.05$ (Eklund et al., 2016). Negative correlations were not
225 included in analyses, as they are not interpretable in the present context (Murphy et al., 2009).

226 To account for generalizability of results and heritability confounding, connectivity results
227 within the BMI-discordant twin sample were contrasted to that of the 1) unrelated, BMI-
228 discordant sample as a test of generalizability; and 2) in BMI-similar twin sample as a test of
229 heritability confounding. Significant network connectivity in both contrasts was compared
230 between BMI-discordant twins, unrelated BMI-discordant pairs, and BMI-similar twins.
231 Equivalent results were identified when significant connectivity of two networks was observed in
232 both samples. Connectivity results present in the both BMI-discordant pair samples (twin and
233 unrelated), but not seen in the BMI-similar twin pairs were considered reliable and generalizable
234 body mass contingent alterations in functional connectivity.

235 Secondary analyses included examination of within pair and between group differences in
236 behavioral, mood, substance abuse, and physiological characteristics theorized to relate to
237 eating behavior and weight regulation or that may represent unique physiological differences
238 between BMI discordant groups not encompassed by BMI alone: response inhibition and
239 executive functioning as measured by the NIH Toolbox's Flanker Task (age adjusted)
240 (Lavagnino et al., 2016; Weintraub et al., 2013), self-regulation and impulsivity as measured by
241 the Delay Discounting Task (Green et al., 1994; Nederkoom et al., 2007), taste sensitivity as
242 measured by the NIH Toolbox's Taste Intensity Test (age adjusted) (Coldwell et al., 2013;
243 Grinker et al., 1972), major depressive episodes, number depressive symptoms, alcohol use,
244 tobacco use, illicit drug use or marijuana use and dependence, hemoglobin A1c and systolic
245 and diastolic blood pressure. Mixed linear models were used to test for within-pair and between-
246 group differences in the behavioral and physiological measures via PROC MIXED in SAS
247 (Version 9.4, SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA). Significance was thresholded at $p < 0.05$.

248 Preregistration and analytic scripts for this study can be found via the Open Science
249 Framework (Center for Open Science, Charlottesville, VA, USA, DOI
250 10.17605/OSF.IO/VTMPW). All scripts for this analysis can be found on Github at
251 https://github.com/niblunc/twin_HCP_paper.

252

253 Results

254 *Sample Characteristics.* Participant data including age, gender, race/ethnicity, BMI and BMI
255 discordancy, and zygosity can be found in **Table 1**. The BMI-discordant twins ($n_{\text{pairs}} = 47$) had a
256 difference $> 3.40 \text{ kg/m}^2$, and BMI-similar twins ($n_{\text{pairs}} = 47$) had a difference $\leq 1.69 \text{ kg/m}^2$. The
257 distribution of BMI in the three samples can be seen in **Figure 2**.

258

259 *Connectivity in Body Mass Discordant Twins.* Body mass discordant twins ($n_{\text{pairs}} = 47$) had a
260 mean BMI discordancy of $6.7 \pm 3.1 \text{ kg/m}^2$, representing a difference greater than one BMI
261 category (NIH, 2017). A within-pair comparison confirmed significant difference in BMI ($T = 7.4$,
262 $p < 0.0001$) between higher BMI and lower BMI twins. Network hierarchy, represented by the
263 brackets in the upper portion of the image, and partial (below the diagonal) and full correlations
264 (above the diagonal) of the 25-network parcellation for the BMI-discordant sample can be seen
265 in **Figure 3A**. Between network connectivity results, controlled for heritability, are summarized in
266 **Table 2**.

267 When comparing the higher BMI twin to their lower BMI counterpart (higher BMI > lower
268 BMI), we observed significantly stronger connectivity between the occipital pole (IC 9) and a
269 network (IC 2) including the medial orbitofrontal cortex (mOFC), posterior cingulate

270 cortex/precuneus, temporoparietal junction, and hippocampus, putatively representing the
271 default mode network (DMN; $T = 4.30$; $p_{FWE} = 0.004$; Table 2; **Figure 4A**). Stronger connectivity
272 was also observed between the cerebellar right crus I (IC 16) and a network containing the
273 anterior cingulate, insula, central operculum, and precentral gyrus (IC 7; $T = 3.64$; $p_{FWE} = 0.037$;
274 Table 2; Figure 4B), and between a network inclusive of the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex
275 (dlPFC) and ventrolateral prefrontal cortex (vlPFC; IC 10) and left crus II of the cerebellum (IC
276 22; $T = 4.57$; $p_{FWE} = 0.001$ Table 2; Figure 4C).

277 When comparing connectivity of the lower BMI twin relative to the higher BMI twin (lower
278 BMI > higher BMI), significantly stronger connectivity was found between the occipital pole (IC
279 9) and a network containing the occipital pole (IC 3), intracalcarine cortex, and lingual gyrus ($T =$
280 4.04 ; $p_{FWE} = 0.003$; Table 2; **Figure 5A**). Stronger connectivity was also found between the
281 occipital pole (IC 9) network and the network inclusive of the insula, anterior cingulate, central
282 operculum, and precentral gyrus networks (IC 7; $T = 4.19$; $p_{FWE} = 0.005$; Table 2; Figure 5B).
283 Additionally, stronger connectivity was seen between the dlPFC/vlPFC network (IC 10) and a
284 network including the dorsal and ventral striatum and insula (IC 25; $T = 3.70$; $p_{FWE} = 0.035$;
285 Table 2; Figure 5C).

286
287 *Unique connectivity in Unrelated, Body Mass Discordant Pairs.* Network hierarchy and full and
288 partial correlations of the 25-network parcellation for the unrelated, BMI-discordant pairs can be
289 seen in **Figure 3B**. The mean BMI difference between the unrelated, BMI-discordant sample
290 was also 6.7 ± 3.1 kg/m², only 0.12 kg/m² different relative to BMI-discordant twin sample ($T =$
291 0.06 , $p = 0.95$). Among the higher vs. lower BMI individuals, stronger connectivity was identified
292 between a network identified as the default mode network (IC 2) and a network including the
293 insula, central operculum, precentral gyrus, and anterior cingulate (IC 7; $T = 4.71$, $p = 0.002$;
294 Table 2). Stronger connectivity was also observed between a network including the lateral
295 occipital cortex (IC 4) and the lingual gyrus and occipital cortex (IC 12; $T = 4.62$; $p_{FWE} = 0.003$).
296 Stronger connectivity was not observed in the lower BMI individuals relative to their higher BMI
297 counterparts in the unrelated pairs.

298
299 *Unique connectivity in Body Mass Similar Twins.* The mean body mass discordance in the BMI-
300 similar twin pairs ($n_{pairs} = 47$) was 0.7 ± 0.5 kg/m². Network hierarchy and full and partial
301 correlations of the 25-network parcellation can be seen in **Figure 3C**. Connectivity identified in
302 the BMI-similar twin sample was not equivalent with connectivity observed in the BMI-discordant
303 twins, **controlling for heritability, there was no significant connectivity observed in either contrast.**

304
305 *100-Network ICA Parcellation.* To probe whether connectivity patterns observed in the BMI-
306 discordant twin sample were driven by smaller parcels of networks, we completed the same
307 functional connectivity analyses (including heritability weighting) using the 100-network ICA
308 parcellation in the BMI-discordant twin sample. While significant connectivity was observed in
309 comparing higher BMI > lower BMI twins and lower BMI > higher BMI twins (**Supplement Table**
310 **1**), none of the connected networks using the 100 network parcellation reflected similar
311 connectivity patterns seen in the larger networks stemming from the 25-network ICA
312 parcellation.

313
314 *Secondary Analyses: Behavioral and Physiological Correlates and Differences as a Function of*
315 *Zygosity.* Post-hoc examination of behavioral and physiological characteristics between the two
316 body mass discordant samples revealed no significant interaction of BMI and twin-status on the
317 following: Flanker task scores ($T = 0.51$, $p = 0.61$), area under the curve for the \$2,000 delay
318 discounting task ($T = -0.49$, $p = 0.62$), area under the curve for the \$40,000 delay discounting
319 task ($T = 0.35$, $p = 0.73$), taste sensitivity task ($T = 0.59$, $p = 0.56$), systolic blood pressure ($T =$
320 0.56 , $p = 0.58$), diastolic blood pressure ($T = 0.76$, $p = 0.45$), and hemoglobin A1c ($T = 0.06$, $p =$

321 0.95), collectively indicating no behavioral or physiological differences between the two body
322 mass discordant samples. Additionally, there were no between group or within pair differences
323 in measures of mood and substance use disorders between the BMI-discordant samples (p 's <
324 0.05). Visual representation of results can be seen in **Supplemental Figure 1**.

325 326 **Discussion**

327 Leveraging samples of body mass discordant twins, unrelated body mass discordant
328 individuals, and body mass similar twins we sought to determine whether resting state network
329 connectivity was impacted relative differences in BMI. **Across the BMI discordant samples, we**
330 **show that connectivity of networks inclusive of regions previously implicated in encoding**
331 **gustatory processing (insula/parietal operculum), a network including the primary visual cortex,**
332 **and the default mode network (DMN) are particularly sensitive to differences in BMI. In both BMI**
333 **discordant samples, higher BMI individuals show stronger connectivity between default mode**
334 **network with other networks, specifically the occipital pole (twin sample), and the network**
335 **inclusive of gustatory processing regions (unrelated sample). Although the between network**
336 **connectivity stemming from the DMN is different between the two samples, both are in line with**
337 **previous investigations that indicate elevated BMI is associated with aberrant gustatory and**
338 **visual processing (Small et al., 2001; Stice et al., 2008; Stoeckel et al., 2008) and with**
339 **increased connectivity within the DMN (Tregellas et al., 2011).** Further, results from BMI
340 discordant samples were not evident in BMI-similar twins, providing support that connectivity
341 results are a function of BMI. Beyond the aforementioned three networks that appear to be
342 consistently sensitive to differences in weight, below we discuss broader implications of the
343 specific BMI dependent between network results.

344 We observed that the lower BMI twins showed stronger connectivity between a network
345 centered in the dlPFC and a network comprising the striatum/thalamus relative to their higher
346 BMI twins. The predominate regions in these networks are present in mesocorticolimbic
347 dopaminergic circuitry, specifically the mesolimbic (striatum/thalamus) and the mesocortical
348 (dlPFC) dopaminergic pathways (Le Moal and Simon, 1991). Cortical-striatal connectivity is
349 thought to integrate behavioral motivation with decision-making and executive control (Di
350 Martino et al., 2008). Altered cortical-striatal connectivity and decreased dlPFC connectivity has
351 been observed in obesity (García-García et al., 2013; Kullmann et al., 2013, 2012; Moreno-
352 Lopez et al., 2016; Nummenmaa et al., 2012). Here, increased connectivity between these
353 regions confers more efficient communication, indicating lower BMI individuals may be more
354 responsive to changes in reward valuation and present with increased cognitive control during
355 decision-making (Rangel and Hare, 2010), possibly specific to decisions about food intake. This
356 interpretation posits that lighter individuals may possess firmer appetite regulation when
357 presented with highly palatable, energy-dense foods. Previous works supports, the current
358 findings and reinforce the hypothesis that cortical-striatal-thalamic network connectivity is
359 involved with weight regulation through mechanisms where stronger connectivity contributes to
360 better regulation of hedonically motivated food-related behaviors.

361 Higher BMI twins showed increased connectivity between a network including the insula,
362 central operculum, anterior cingulate, and precentral gyrus with the right crus I of the
363 cerebellum. Regions included in the insular network are consistently implicated in encoding
364 gustatory processing (Veldhuizen et al., 2011), where the right crus I is involved in encoding
365 motor control and working memory (Habas et al., 2009; Stoodley et al., 2012). Positron
366 emission tomography in healthy-weight men demonstrated stronger cerebral blood flow in both
367 the insula and cerebellum when fasted for 36 hours versus a postprandial state (when fed)
368 (Tataranni et al., 1999), indicating the strength of his dynamic connectivity may be associated
369 with caloric deprivation. In support, functional connectivity between insular and cerebellar
370 networks in healthy weight individuals was also elevated following an overnight fast (Wright et
371 al., 2016). Moreover, insular-cerebellar connectivity is seen in healthy individuals during

372 hypoglycemia (Bolo et al., 2015), a physiologic characteristic of being fasted for extended time
373 periods. Taken together, these data provide strong evidence that stronger insula and cerebellar
374 connectivity is reflective of caloric deprivation/hunger signaling. Interestingly, in obese
375 individuals, increased insula and cerebellar BOLD response were seen following gastric
376 distension by balloon, mimicking fullness without a caloric load (Tomasi et al., 2009). This
377 supports the notion that higher BMI individuals show an insular-cerebellar response that is
378 thought to encode aspects of being calorically deprived in a time their stomach is 'full'. This BMI
379 dependent incongruent valence of insula and cerebellar connectivity could act to perpetuate
380 food intake in a postprandial state, commonly referred to as eating in the absence of hunger. In
381 support, behavioral reports demonstrate that obesity is associated with increased appetite and
382 decreased satiation (Cabanac and Duclaux, 1970; Schachter, 1968). In sum, these data signify
383 that, unlike being a healthy weight, higher BMI is associated with a stronger insula-cerebellar
384 connection that is unresponsive to fullness, theoretically, contributing to increased postprandial
385 food intake.

386 Elevated BMI was also related to stronger connectivity between the primary visual cortex
387 and the DMN, which the latter is reflective of internal mental awareness and is diminished
388 during goal-directed tasks (Buckner et al., 2008). At rest, functional connectivity within the DMN
389 is positively correlated with BMI (Tregellas et al., 2011), and obesity is associated with
390 increased connectivity within the salience network, which comprises the visual cortex and
391 superior parietal lobule (including the precuneus/PCC) (García-García et al., 2013). Moreover,
392 evoked studies utilizing food stimuli (pictures of foods, cue-elicited anticipation of food receipt)
393 consistently demonstrate that elevated weight is associated increased BOLD response in these
394 regions that encode visual and attentional processing. This pattern of higher propensity towards
395 strong visual response with elevated weight is hypothesized to play a key role forming eating
396 habits (Gilbert and Burger, 2016).

397 The general approach used here, i.e., comparison the higher BMI versus lower BMI, does
398 not directly align with comparisons of 'standard' weight status groupings, i.e., obese versus
399 healthy weight (NIH, 2017). While our study is cross-sectional, the present approach is more
400 relevant to longitudinal and experimental designs. Prospective designs typically use within-
401 subject continuous BMI change as a sensitive test for weight change, for example a shift from a
402 'healthy' BMI of 24.5 to an 'overweight' BMI of 25.3 is clinically insignificant. In the present
403 sample, there are relatively broad distributions of BMI in both the 'higher BMI' and 'lower BMI'
404 groups. Results from these analyses cannot provide valid information regarding the relationship
405 between functional connectivity and absolute BMI. Due to the analysis used, one cannot infer
406 that any given BMI is related to a specific connectivity pattern based on solely this data, one can
407 only interpret the results in terms of relative higher and lower body mass. In support of the
408 present approach, it has been suggested that absolute BMI is not the best standard of health,
409 as it does not always align with health and mortality outcomes (Nuttall, 2015). Moreover, when
410 individuals are at an elevated weight, a 5% weight loss is physiologically beneficial (Douketis et
411 al., 2005). The present design dovetails with this clinically relevant 'relative weight difference'
412 approach, making results more applicable to prospective and intervention studies. Though, the
413 approach does require consideration of the magnitude of BMI difference within pairs. Here, BMI-
414 discordant twin pairs had an average BMI difference of 6.7 kg/m². Although this difference
415 greater than a full BMI category, within some pairs, the heavy and lighter individuals were in the
416 same BMI category, or both obese and overweight. As such, we were not surprised that the
417 patterns of connectivity observed in this study differ somewhat from previous analyses based on
418 BMI categories (García-García et al., 2013; Kullmann et al., 2012; Park et al., 2016;
419 Wijngaarden et al., 2015).

420 **No equivalent connectivity was observed between BMI-discordant twins and the unrelated,**
421 **BMI-discordant pairs. Twins inherently have shared genetics, likely have a similar food**
422 **environment during youth (Barsh et al., 2000; Farooqi and O'rahilly, 2000), demonstrate less**

423 between-subject variability in common fMRI confounds, i.e., head motion (Hodgson et al.,
424 2016), and show similar resting state network connectivity (Fu et al., 2015). By largely
425 controlling for these possible confounds (Falconer and Mackay, 1996), results from the BMI-
426 discordant twin sample may provide a robust test for BMI-dependent differences in connectivity.
427 However, this approach cannot completely account for every aspect of heritability and/or shared
428 early life environment. The remaining possible confounders could be represented in the lack of
429 consistent results between two BMI-discordant samples. This possibility demonstrates a
430 decision point in study design, specifically, the comparing relative importance of internal
431 sensitivity and/or high methodological study control, relative to generalizability of results. Here,
432 the twin sample approach is more highly controlled, and thus the results are likely to be closer to
433 true effect of body mass on functional connectivity. However, even if that notion is correct, the
434 'true' results are of limited utility as they only generalize to twins, where a case can be made
435 that the results from the unrelated sample are more meaningful as they generalize to a larger
436 population. Ultimately, replication of findings in independent samples, across multiple studies,
437 utilizing different data acquisition techniques will serve to establish both validity and
438 generalizability of the results.

439 We did not find significant within pair differences between BMI-discordant twins or unrelated
440 BMI-discordant pairs in behavioral (executive functioning, impulsivity, and taste sensitivity) and
441 physiological measures (hemoglobin A1c and blood pressure) that are thought to be associated
442 with weight. Eligibility criteria excluded individuals with weight-related diseases, e.g. individuals
443 with high blood pressure and/or diabetes, thereby reducing the variability in these behavioral
444 and physiological measures and thus the ability to detect BMI-related differences between
445 higher BMI and lower BMI twins. Additionally, the differences in functional connectivity observed
446 may not manifest behaviorally in the measures included in the present sample, specifically given
447 these generalized tasks, i.e., not food specific. In support, previous weight discordant twin
448 research, heavier twins reported stronger preference for fat and a greater tendency to overeat,
449 but no difference on non-food related psychological measures (Rissanen et al., 2002). This
450 suggests that testing food/eating behaviors specific measures may better identify differences as
451 a function of weight status, but generalized assessments may have lower sensitivity when
452 assessing BMI-related differences.

453 In the primary analysis, we assessed between network connectivity within the 25 networks
454 identified by ICA parcellation, though it reasonable to hypothesize that additional differences
455 between weight discordant twins may emerge at a higher dimensionality, as it potentially parses
456 apart large networks into smaller sub-regions. The exploratory connectivity analysis using a
457 100-network parcellation attempted to address this limitation, however this did not elicit
458 identifiable 'sub'-networks for more specific interpretation. These data indicate that broader
459 networks that incorporate more regions, may provide more meaningful information relating to
460 our hypotheses. However, this approach did lend itself to significant connectivity patterns of
461 networks that are anatomically located next to one another, i.e., (IC 9 with IC 3; IC 4 with IC 12).
462 As the regions in each network are too similar in function for meaningful interpretation, for the
463 brevity of this discussion these patterns were not discussed. The present study is restricted by
464 its cross-sectional design, limiting inferences regarding the temporal precedence of the relations
465 between functional connectivity and BMI. We are unable to determine a causal nature of the
466 observed relationships between weight and differential functional connectivity and can only state
467 that these differences in connectivity may play a role associated with weight regulation.

468 In sum, this investigation examined functional connectivity between weight discordant twins
469 and unrelated samples. We observed that, across all of the samples tested, a network
470 comprised of gustatory processing regions, a visual processing network, and the default
471 mode network all appear to be highly sensitivity to weight status. Further, reduced weight is
472 associated with greater integration of regions that encode reward learning and executive control
473 which underpin hedonically motivated behaviors. This, theoretically, may contribute to better

474 behavioral control when lighter individuals are faced with highly palatable foods. Lastly, higher
475 weight is associated with functional connectivity pattern that has consistently been reflective of
476 caloric deprivation/hunger. Here, we demonstrate that unique, distinct connectivity patterns can
477 represent weight variability adding to the mounting evidence that implicates aberrant brain
478 functioning with the accumulation and/or maintenance of elevated weight.

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482

483 **Author contributions**

484 JRS completed study preregistration, analyses, and drafted the manuscript. GES assisted in
485 study development, analyses, and revised the manuscript. KSB contributed to study
486 development, analyses, and drafting the manuscript.

487

488 **Competing financial interests statement**

489 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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492 **Table 1:** Participant Characteristics (n=282^a)

	BMI-discordant twins (n=94)	Unrelated, BMI-discordant pairs (n=94)	Group Difference <i>BMI-discordant twins & unrelated pairs</i>	BMI-similar twins (n=94)	Group Difference <i>BMI-discordant twins & BMI-similar twins</i>
Age (mean ± SD; years)	29.4 ± 3.5	28.5 ± 3.6	<i>p</i> = 0.08	29.3 ± 3.5	<i>p</i> = 0.71
Body Mass Index (kg/m ²)	28.1 ± 5.6	28.1 ± 5.7	<i>p</i> = 0.95	25.6 ± 4.1	<i>p</i> < 0.001
BMI Discordancy (kg/m ²)	6.7 ± 3.1	6.7 ± 3.1	<i>p</i> = 0.98	0.7 ± 0.5	<i>p</i> < 0.001
Race (percent)					
Asian/Pacific Islander	0	9 (10%)		7 (7%)	
African American	14 (15%)	21 (22%)	<i>p</i> = 0.002	10 (11%)	<i>p</i> = 0.02
Caucasian	78 (83%)	58 (62%)		77 (82%)	
Multiracial	0	3 (3%)		0	
Not Reported	2 (2%)	3 (3%)		0	
Ethnicity (percent)					
Hispanic/Latino	1 (1%)	12 (13%)		0	
Non-Hispanic/Latino	91 (97%)	82 (87%)	<i>p</i> = 0.003	93 (99%)	<i>p</i> = 0.51
Not Reported	2 (2%)	0		1 (1%)	
Zygoty (percent)					
Monozygotic	44 (47%)	N/A	N/A	44 (47%)	<i>p</i> = 1.0
Dizygotic	50 (53%)	N/A		50 (53%)	
Gender (percent)					
Male	32 (34%)	32 (34%)	<i>p</i> = 1.0	46 (49%)	<i>p</i> = 0.05
Female	62 (66%)	62 (66%)		48 (51%)	

^a Total unique subjects across the three samples included in analyses

* Significant group difference between the BMI-discordant twin sample and the unrelated, BMI-discordant pair sample or BMI-similar twin sample, as determined by t-test (age, BMI, BMI discordancy) or χ^2 test (race, ethnicity, zygoty, gender) (*p* < 0.05)

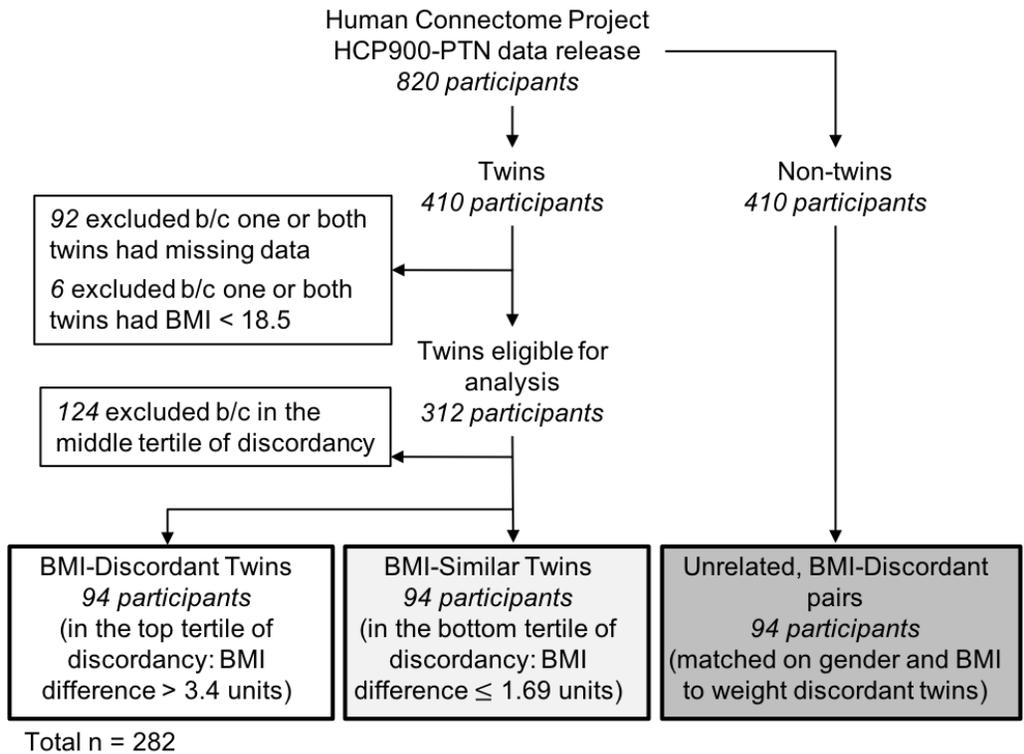
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Table 2: Significant Between Network Connectivity in BMI-discordant Twins (n=94) and Unrelated, BMI-Discordant Pairs (n=94)

BMI-Discordant Twins				
<i>Contrast</i>	<i>IC</i>	<i>Network</i>	<i>T-value</i>	<i>p_{FWE}</i>
Higher BMI > Lower BMI	9	Occipital pole	4.30	0.004
	2	Default Mode Network		
	16	Right crus I	3.64	0.037
	7	Insula, central operculum, precentral gyrus, and anterior cingulate		
	10	Dorsolateral prefrontal cortex, ventrolateral prefrontal cortex	4.57	0.001
22	Left crus II			
Lower BMI > Higher BMI	9	Occipital pole	4.04	0.003
	3	Occipital pole, intracalcarine cortex, and lingual gyrus		
	9	Occipital pole	4.19	0.005
	7	Insula, central operculum, precentral gyrus, and anterior cingulate		
	10	Dorsolateral prefrontal cortex, ventrolateral prefrontal cortex	3.70	0.035
25	Dorsal striatum, ventral striatum, insula			
Unrelated, BMI-Discordant Pairs				
<i>Contrast</i>	<i>IC</i>	<i>Network</i>	<i>T-value</i>	<i>p_{FWE}</i>
Higher BMI > Lower BMI	2	Default Mode Network	4.71	0.002
	7	Insula, parietal operculum, and dorsal anterior cingulate cortex		
	4	Lateral occipital cortex	4.62	0.003
	12	Lingual gyrus, occipital cortex		

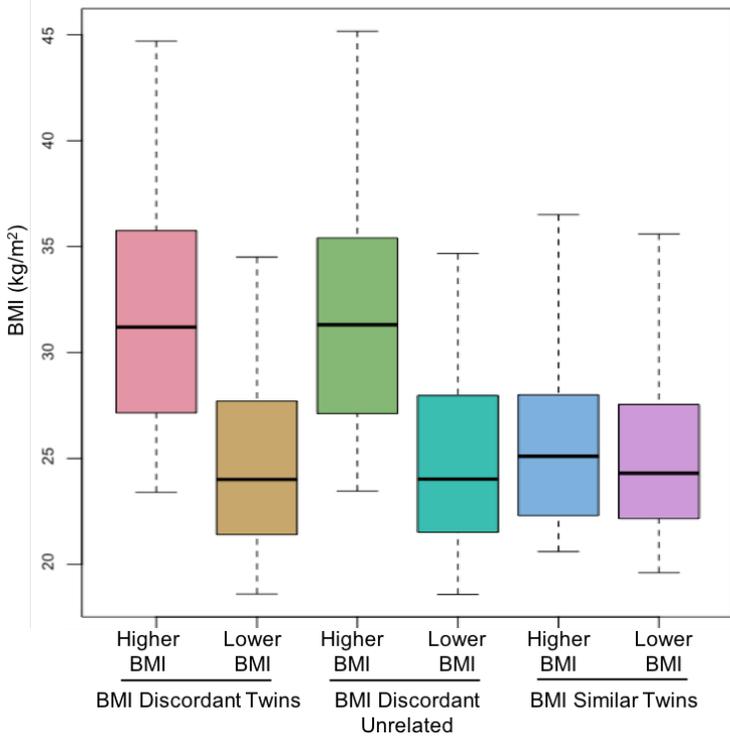
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Figure 1



The selection procedure used to generate the three main samples for the study analyses from the Human Connectome Project HCP900-PTN data release.

Figure 2. BMI Distribution

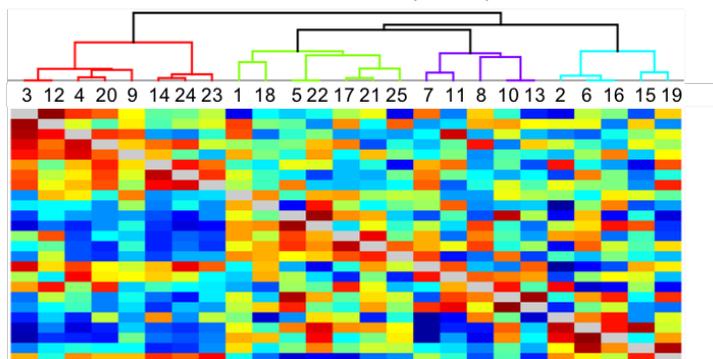


BMI distributions of the higher and lower BMI individuals within the BMI discordant twin group, BMI discordant unrelated pair group, and BMI similar twin group.

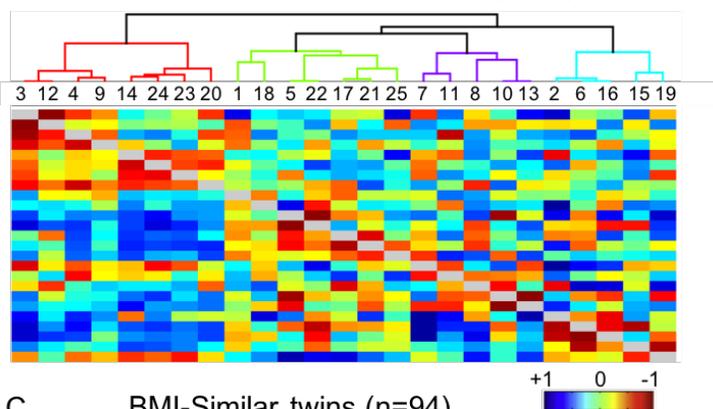
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Figure 3.

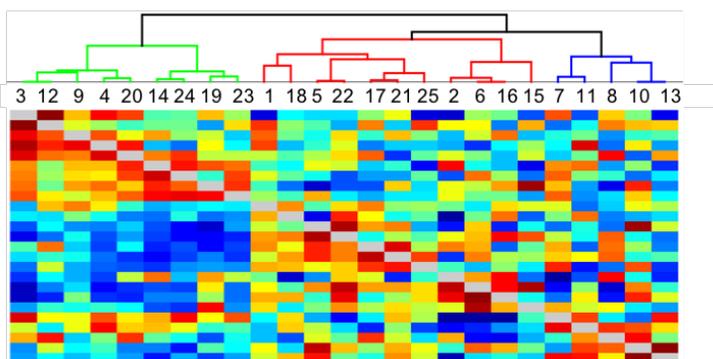
A. BMI-Discordant twins (n=94)



B. Unrelated, BMI-discordant pairs (n=94)



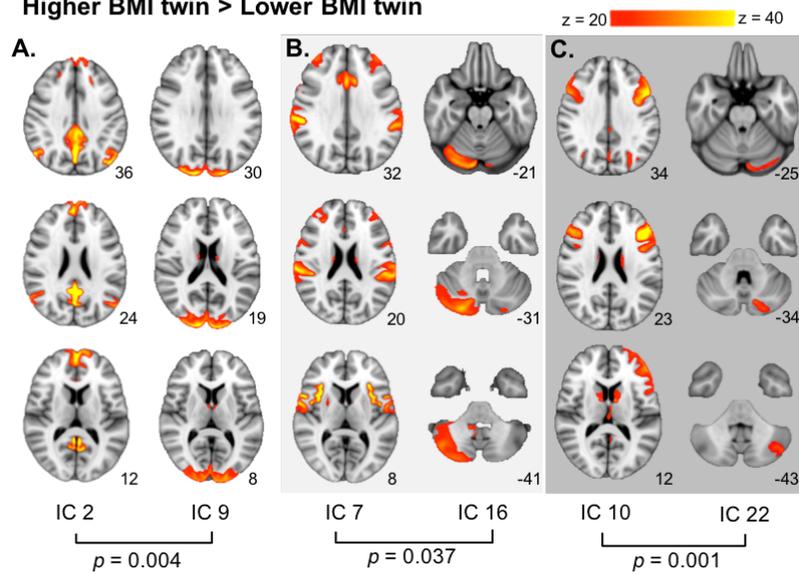
C. BMI-Similar twins (n=94)



Hierarchy and correlation heatmaps of resting state network connectivity in the three independent samples tested: **A)** BMI-discordant twins; **B)** unrelated, BMI-discordant pairs; **C)** BMI similar twins, for the 25-network parcellation. Each map shows the parcel hierarchy at the top (brackets); independent component (IC) numbers listed in the row below the hierarchy; full correlation values in the upper portion of the heatmap, and partial correlation values in the lower portion of the heatmap.

Figure 4.

Higher BMI twin > Lower BMI twin

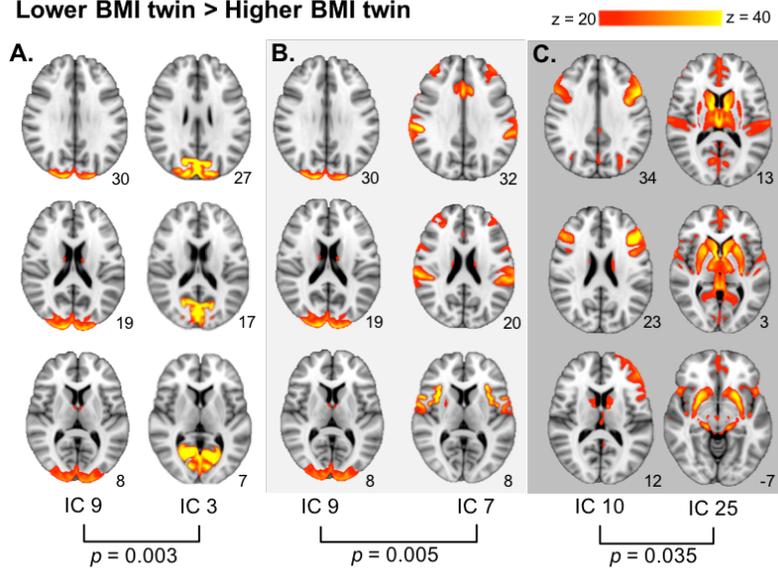


Differential network connectivity in the BMI-discordant twin sample. When contrasting higher BMI > lower BMI, stronger connectivity was seen between: **A.** the default mode network (IC 2) and the occipital pole (IC 9); **B.** the insula, central operculum, precentral gyrus and anterior cingulate (IC 7) and right crus I of the cerebellum (IC 16); **C.** the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex and ventrolateral prefrontal cortex (IC 10) and the left crus II (IC 22). MNI coordinates of each slice on the z-axis are listed below each slice.

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Figure 5.

Lower BMI twin > Higher BMI twin



Differential network connectivity in the BMI-discordant twin sample. When contrasting lower BMI > higher BMI, stronger connectivity was found between: **A.** the occipital pole, intracalcarine cortex, and lingual gyrus (IC 3) and the occipital pole (IC 9); **B.** the occipital pole (IC 9) and the insula, central operculum, precentral gyrus and anterior cingulate (IC 7); **C.** the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex and ventrolateral prefrontal cortex (IC 10) and the dorsal striatum, ventral striatum, and insula (IC 25). MNI coordinates of each slice on the z-axis are listed below each slice.

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