

A Review of Genes Associated with Obesity Susceptibility: Findings from Association Studies

Ramakrishnan Veerabathiran, M.Phil., Ph.D., Sandeep Sivakumar, M.Sc., Iyshwarya Bhaskar Kalarani, M.Sc., Vajagathali Mohammed, M.Sc.

Human Cytogenetics and Genomics Laboratory, Faculty of Allied Health Sciences, Chettinad Hospital and Research Institute, Chettinad Academy of Research and Education, Kelambakkam 603103, Tamilnadu, India.

Received 27 September 2022 • Revised 5 April 2023 • Accepted 11 April 2023 • Published online 8 June 2023

Abstract:

Obesity is described as the accumulation of excess body fat. Several health issues are caused by excess fat, including cancer, type 2 diabetes, and cardiovascular disease. Additionally, obesity rates among schoolchildren and young adults are rising globally, putting young people at risk of chronic diseases. Genetics, epigenetic modification, epigenomics, and environmental factors influence inheritance patterns significantly. This systematic study aimed to classify and investigate the polymorphisms of novel candidate obesity genes. Several genes have been suggested, includingat mass and obesity-associated gene (FTO), leptin gene (LEP), leptin receptor gene (LEPR), peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma gene (PPARG), melanocortin 4 receptor (MC4R), insulin-induced gene 2 (INSIG2), proprotein convertase subtilisin/kexin type 1 (PCSK1), adrenoceptor beta 2 (ADRB2), and uncoupling protein 2 (UCP2). The study's literature review identified genes in scientific papers published in databases such as Web of Science, PubMed, Google Scholar, Embase, and others over the past three decades. There is evidence that genetic variations contribute to childhood obesity, adolescent obesity, and young adult obesity. Identifying functional differences and further defining the implicated molecularly and physiologically involved genes andpathways in efficient therapeutic approaches in fighting. Technological advances have recently demonstrated that genetic changes and mutations can be used as biological markers, risk indicators, and therapeutic targets.

Keywords: genetics, predictive markers, obesity, polymorphism

Contact: Ramakrishnan Veerabathiran, M.Phil., Ph.D.

Human Cytogenetics and Genomics Laboratory, Faculty of Allied Health Sciences, Chettinad Hospital and Research Institute, Chettinad Academy of Research and Education,

Kelambakkam 603103, Tamilnadu, India.

E-mail: rkgenes@gmail.com

© 2023 JHSMR. Hosted by Prince of Songkla University. All rights reserved.

This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license

(http://www.jhsmr.org/index.php/jhsmr/about/editorialPolicies#openAccessPolicy).

J Health Sci Med Resdoi: 10.31584/jhsmr.2023959 www.jhsmr.org

Introduction

Obesity results from a chronic surplus in energy consumption compared with expenditure on energy, which causes excessive triglycerides to be stashed in adipocytes¹. Undesired obesity metabolism can contribute to an increased threat of type 2 diabetes, multiple forms of cancer,

a fatty liver, hormonal distortions, high blood pressure, cardiovascular disease (CVD), and higher mortality (Figure 1)². The body mass index (BMI) is used as a primary indicator of obesity. The World Health Organization (WHO) defines an obese individual as having a BMI of 30 to 40 kg/m. Obesity has been linked to an increased

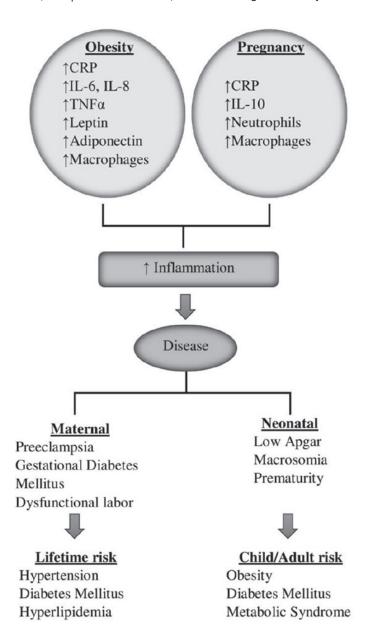


Figure 1 Significant complications of obesity

risk of polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS), infertility, and pregnancy-related issues such as miscarriage, cesarean section, stillbirth, and birth abnormalities in children (Figure 2)³. It is estimated that more than seven hundred million people globally will become obese by 2015⁴. Changes to more sedentary lifestyles and improving socio-economic development, will increase epidemiology further.

Another significant factor is that in school children and young adults worldwide, obesity prevalence rates are increasing, predisposing young people to chronic diseases. Across the world and in developed and developing nations, women are more likely to be overweight and obese than men. Obesity is now known as an outbreak, genetic predisposition is also required, as shown by 40 to 70% of heritability estimates. During the twentieth century, research demonstrated that obesity-related traits have a hereditary component⁵. A single gene mutation, mainly in the leptin-melanocortin pathway, encodes proteins tightly linked to the control of energy intake and expenditure Genes that might

qualify as candidate genes for such processes are chosen based on their perceived function or role in the biochemical processes of the particular genotype, for example, the structural allele for a secreting protein⁶.

Genetic aspects of obesity

Obesity is generally divided into subgroups based on suspected etiological conditions, such as monogenic obesity (very severe obesity in the absence of developing retardation), a high proportion of CVD is associated with obesity (mental retardation, dysmorphic features, and developmental malformations and polygenic obesity (which also affects the general population). There are about 20 gene disorders resulting in an autosomal form of obesity, the first of which was identified in 1997. Notably, the mutations affect the leptin/melanocortin pathway in thecentral nervous system (CNS, which regulates whole-body energy homeostasis, which seems to have a relatively high appetite and decreased satiety in all of these circumstances of

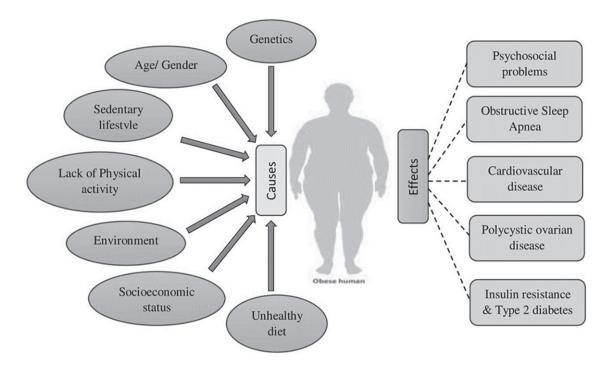


Figure 2 Various risk factors for obesity

obesity^{7,8}. Both monogenic and syndrome forms of obesity are pervasive, and the identification of causal genetic variants has been quite successful⁹. It should be noted that gender and age are linked to obesity and body composition variations. Females, for example, process and collect more fat subcutaneously than in the visceral adipose tissue¹⁰. There are two general patterns of fat distribution: android

(adiposis deposition in the abdomen) and gynoid (adipose deposition around the hips). One of the primary genetic variables related to obesity is the existence of specific genetic variations or mutations that influence the control of appetite and metabolism. Figure 3 demonstrates the role of genes in obesity.

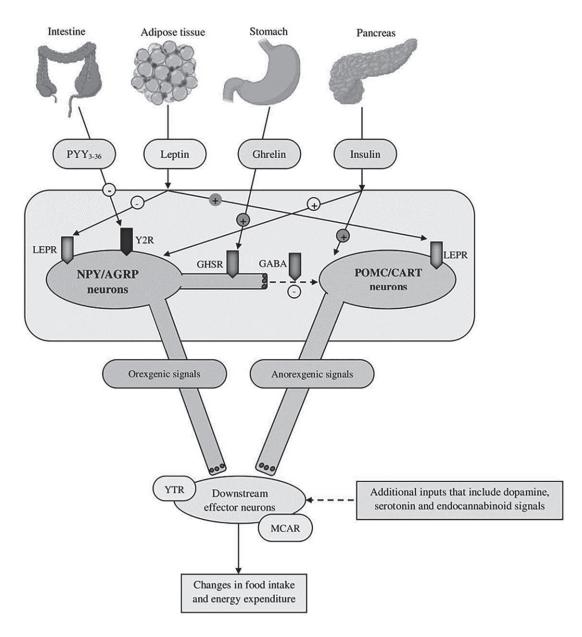


Figure 3 Genetic aspects and mechanisms of weight gain/obesity

Candidate genes linked to obesity

The genes selected from studies published in literature publications published over the last thirty years and catalogued on the Web of Sciences, PubMed, Google Scholar, Embase, and numerous other databases. Titles and abstracts were extracted form the literature and two reviewers reviewed the published articles. The papers were divided into two sections. The first category of publications focused on obesity as a chronic illness, while the second focused on themes, genes, and their links to obesity. The selected genes contained both intronic and exonic mutations, and the studies have reported gene expression in different regions leads to single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNP) (Figure 4). Table 1 describes the genes and functions associated with obesity and obesity-related health problems.

First, it may assist in a better understanding of the underlying biological mechanisms that lead to the development of obesity. This insight may be used to create novel therapies or interventions for obese people. Second, finding the genes linked to obesity might help us identify those more likely to become obese. Personalized preventative and treatment strategies, including dietary and

lifestyle modifications or targeted drug therapies, may be developed by using this knowledge. Lastly, knowing the genetic causes of obesity might help us understand how genetics affects other diseases, including cardiovascular disease, type 2 diabetes, and some malignancies often associated with fat. This review found that many genes which have been identified as potential contributors to the development of this disease.

Fat mass and obesity-associated gene (FTO)

The *FTO* gene is located on chromosome 16q12.2 and has a maximum length of 410.50 kb, nine exons, and eight introns¹¹. It is broadly expressed in human adipose and skeletal muscle tissues, with the most significant expression in the hypothalamic regions, regulating energy balance, especially the arcuate nucleus. Throughout 2007, genomewide research assessed multiple SNPs directly correlated with body fat percentage, hip circumference, body composition, and energy consumption. In addition, *FTO* was identified as an obesity sensitivity gene¹². N6–methyladenosine demethylase (m6A) was discovered in mRNA and associated with *FTO's* carcinogenesis and adipogenesis.

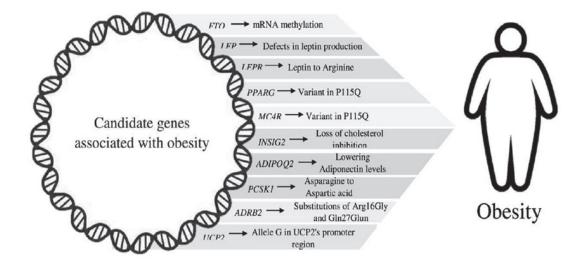


Figure 4 Candidate genes associated with obesity

Table 1 Candidate genes associated with obesity

Reference	[13]	[17]	[24]	[29]	[37]	[44]	[49]	[57]	[65]	[69]
Polymorphic R sequence	rs9939609	rs7799039 [1	K109R, Q223R [2	rs1801282 [2	rs17782313 [3	rs7566605 [²	rs2241766	rs6232, rs6234, [5 and rs6235	rs1042714, [6 Arg16Gly, rs1042713	Ala55Val [6
Functions	In human skeletal muscles and adipose tissues, the strongest expression is in the arcuate nucleus of the hypothalamus, which regulates energy balance. Thus, it may be essential for appetite regulation and energy metabolism	It provides instructions for making a hormone called leptin, which is involved in the regulation of body weight	It plays an important role in regulating adipose-tissue mass	It plays a crucial role in adipogenesis and adipocyte gene expression and is the receptor for the thiazolidinedione class of insulin-sensitizing drugs.	It is an essential regulator of energy homeostasis, food intake, and body weight in the hypothalamus.	It plays a role in fat metabolism and insulin resistance regulation	Controlling insulin sensitivity and lipid metabolism.	It regulate the calcium and pH dependence of prohormone convertases	Lipid mobilization from fat stores is activated by lipolysis regulation	In the development and treatment of obesity, UCP2 plays a vital role as a mitochondrial transporter involved in glucose/lipid metabolism.
Amino acids	505	167	1165	505	332	225	244	753	413	309
Exons	16	ო	24	4	-	_	4	15	-	10
Gene ID	79068	3952	3953	5468	4160	51141	9370	5122	154	7351
Chromosome Location	16q12.2	7q32.1	1p31.3	3p25.2	18q21.32	2q14.1-q14.2	3q27.3	5q15	5q32	11q13.4
Gene name	FTO alpha-ketoglutarate-dependent dioxygenase	Leptin	Leptin receptor	Peroxisome proliferator- activated receptor gamma	Melanocortin 4 receptor	Insulin-inducedgene 2	Adiponectin, C1Q, and collagen domain- containing protein	Proprotein convertase subtilisin/kexin type 1	Adrenoceptor beta 2	Uncoupling protein 2
Gene	FTO	LEP	LEPR	PPARG	MC4R	INSIG2	ADIPOQ	PCSK1	ADRB2	UCP2

As a result of this discovery, the molecular mechanism linking FTO to increased overweight and obesity susceptibility was elucidated. One study found a link between the high risk of obesity and FTO expression (rs9939609 T/A), lower levels of the m6A ghrelin mRNA methylation, and higher ghrelin hormone levels¹³. An increase in the "hunger hormone," ghrelin, leads to an increased desire for high-calorie meals like sweets and salty snacks; this may affect weight gain and obesity¹⁴. Another study revealed that the FTO genotype at the FTO rs9939609 locus affects food intake and corticolimbic activity. Obesity-related adipose tissue accumulation is an important energy storage mechanism¹⁵. The m6A demethylation modulated by FTO mediates the splicing of mRNA, which is essential in regulating adipogenesis. They discovered that FTO function is inversely proportional to m6A levels throughout adipogenesis, and FTO deficiency prevents differentiation, whereas wild-type FTO (but not FTO mutant) maintains adipogenesis. FTO regulates m6A demethylation, which controls mRNA splicing, which controls adipogenesis. The same study reported that m6A levels and FTO function were negatively correlated with adipogenesis. FTO deficiency impairs differentiation, while wild-type FTO (but not mutant FTO) maintains adipogenesis. By stabilizing m6A levels across splice sites, the FTO controls RUNX1T1 exonic splicing, which affects differentiation. A low m6A level prevents FTO function and adipogenesis, whereas wildtype FTO generates fat. The adipogenic regulator factor RUNX1T1's exonic splicing is monitored by FTO, which regulates differentiation by stabilizing m6A levels across splice sites¹⁶. FTO gene variants may cause an imbalance in these processes, eventually resulting in weight gain and obesity. The FTO gene seems to be involved in diet and energy expenditure regulation.

Leptin gene (*LEP*)

The *LEP* gene encodes for leptin. It is situated in humans on chromosome 7q32.1 and comprises three

exons divided by two introns¹⁷. Leptin is a 167-amino acid protein and is an essential signal in regulating body weight and adipose-tissue mass; and is activated by constraining food intake and motivating energy expenditure. Deficiencies in leptin production cause severe obesity. Multiple studies have identified the leptin gene as a vital cog in obesity, but the results have been mixed. Mammes et al.¹⁸ became the first to demonstrate that the *LEP* promoter's rs7799039 (G-2548A) variant was closely linked with BMI reduction in obese women.

Regarding adipocyte growth and metabolism, CCAAT/enhancer-binding protein-alpha may have a natural target in the "obese" promoter¹⁹. It highly expressed the human LEP gene in the submucosa and adipose tissue of obese individuals²⁰. Changes in CCAAT/enhancerbinding protein alpha levels or activity may affect LEP gene expression²¹. Various microsatellite markers the LEP gene have also been identified. However, the potential connections with obesity seem to be incongruent. C (-188) other reported diverse forms of the human LEP gene have been found to contain polymorphisms in the promoter region, unusual mutagenesis at codon F17L, and a mutation at codon V110M²². A recent study also found a variation in the LEP gene promoter untranslated exon 1 (A19G)²³. Thus, although leptin gene alterations cause rare instances of obesity, obesity is more often brought on by a complex interaction of genetic, environmental, and lifestyle variables.

Leptin receptor gene (*LEPR*)

One experimental study examined the importance of *LEPR1* (primarily found in the brain's hypothalamus region but not in other tissues) in leptin signal transmission to the cell. ²⁶ *LEPR* is located on the 1p31 chromosome in humans and has five isoforms. It is a glycoprotein with a single transmembrane–spanning domain, 1165 amino acids, and is related to the class 1 cytokine receptor family²⁴. Homodimer leptin receptors do have the potential to modulate Janus kinases, which in turn stimulate transcription activators.

The long variant of the leptin receptor is closely linked to leptin signaling via Janus kinases and transcription system activation²⁵. While the long forms are concentrated in specific organs, short forms may be found throughout the body in the kidney, lung, and choroid plexus. Variants commonly occur, leading to two non-conservative modifications: glutamine being replaced by arginine at codon 223 and a conservative alteration leading to lysine substitution at codon 109.27 The human hypothalamus contains the leptin receptor, and researchers have found that the receptor's abilities affect leptin's sensitivity to energy restriction. Minimal impact of the Q223R, K109R, and K656N genetic variants was noted on the LEPR gene's symptomatic depletion of leptin upon energy restriction²⁸. The leptin signaling system may change due to mutations or changes in the LEPR gene, which may help explain how obesity develops. Some LEPR gene variations may be linked to an increased incidence of obesity, according to detailed research, especially in specific populations. It's essential to keep in mind that there are many other variables than genetics that might cause obesity. Diet, lifestyle, and environmental variables are other factors affecting illness.

Peroxisome proliferator activated receptorgamma gene (*PPARG*)

The *PPARG* gene is nearly 100 bp ong and contains one exon. It is located on chromosome 3p25.2. It codes for the *PPARG* subfamily of nuclear hormone receptor transcription factors in the immune system and adipose tissue. These receptors regulate the formation of adipocytes and the balance of glucose metabolism²⁹. The *PPARG* forms a heterodimer that regulates gene transcription in fat metabolism, insulin production, cancer, and inflammation³⁰. SNP rs1801282, in general, has been related to obesity across many populations, with the risk allele G identified³¹. Several gene mutations have been linked to obesity, including P115Q, a very peculiar gain-of-function variant³²; V290M and P467L, two failure mutations

discovered in three patients with metabolic syndrome but maintaining homeostasis weight³³. The CG exchange at NR1C3 protein residue twelve (P12A) changes pyrrolidine-2-carboxylic acid to alanine, which may cause obesity and adult-onset diabetes³⁴. The CT change in exon six at nucleotide one-sixty-one may alter adult susceptibility to obesity and diabetes. It has been demonstrated that the Pro12Ala mutation reduces metabolic syndrome and obesity caused by a ketogenic diet³⁵. The P12A variant's expression is not dissimilar in obese individuals who have one of the two allele variants³⁶. PPARG is a crucial gene in the control of adipogenesis and lipid metabolism overall, and its dysregulation may lead to the onset of obesity and related metabolic diseases. Hence, altering PPARG activity may be a viable therapeutic approach for obesity treatment and associated conditions.

Melanocortin 4 receptor (MC4R)

The MC4R gene is found on chromosome 18q21.3, which contains 332 amino acids that regulate energy expenditure, eating habits, and weight management at the hypothalamic level³⁷. The precise mechanisms underlying the emphasis of the MC4R genetic polymorphism in metabolic disease molecular pathways are unknown. Specific MC4R polymorphisms have been correlated with increased weight gain in genomewide studies, most notably rs17782313, which is associated withhigher BMIs and overeating behaviors. Obesity, hyperphagia, and hyper insulin in children have been linked to MC4R gene variants. Abnormalities in the MC4R gene have been noticed in 3% to 5% of patients with early-onset extreme adult adiposity³⁸. By affecting the MC4R genome, abnormalities that lead to the loss of function of the gene result in adverse consequences of fat loss after exercise³⁹. According to detailed research on infants, the polymorphism rs17782313 has been linked to differences in BMI during the first 14 days of life, body fat, and BMI at 14 days⁴⁰. The MC4R rs17782313 variant, inserted 188 kb downstream of the gene, has been associated with BMI and rates of obese conditions in various populations⁴¹. Abnormalities produce orexigenic signals in the melanocortin system that reduce *MC4R* activity⁴². The leptin-pro-opiomelanocortin pathway, including the *MC4R* gene, regulates appetite and energy expenditure⁴³. Overall, the PPARG gene plays a significant role in the control of adipocyte development and metabolism.

Insulin-Induced Gene 2 (INSIG2)

One of the most prominent roles of INSIG2 in lipid metabolism is in fatty acid and endogenous cholesterol production feedback inhibition. On chromosome 2q14.1-q14.2, the gene measures 21.5 kilobases (Kb). It is an endoplasmic reticulum membrane-bound protein that prevents SREPs from becoming proteolytically activated⁴⁴. A familiar SNP, rs7566605, around the INSIG2 gene, has been associated with obesity in both children and adults. Regardless of ethnicity, roughly 10% of individuals bear the CC genotype, frequently leading to obesity⁴⁵. Obesity is recessively associated with the C [minor] allele⁴⁶. In three independent family-based samples and three studies of unrelated individuals, obesity was associated with the rs7566605 CC genotype. However, confirmation was associated with a single study group. A few efforts have been made or are being made to recreate the INSIG2 discovery. Both positive and negative results have been reported^{47,48}. Data are currently being consolidated for a large-scale meta-analysis, which will shortly assist in understanding whether INSIG2 is a true polygenic Overall, there is some indication that INSIG2 may contribute to the development of obesity, but the findings of the studies have been contradictory, and further studies are required to completely understand the processes at play.

Adipocyte, C1Q, and Collagen Domain Containing protein (ADIPOQ)

ADIPOQ, a gene associated with obesity predisposition, has been found in many genomewide

association studies on chromosome 3g27.3⁴⁹. "Adipocyte complement-related protein of 30 kDa [ACRP30]," "gelatin binding protein 28" (GBP28), and "adipose most extensive gene transcript 1" are all names given to the protein generated by adipocytes, and it was discovered separately in the 1990s by several researchers (APM1)⁵⁰. AMPK is encoded by the adiponectin gene, which regulates glucose levels and fat oxidation in the body⁵¹. Furthermore, obesity, diabetes, and myocardial infarction patients have been reported significantly lower adiponectin rates⁵². Numerous studies have found that ADIPOQ gene variations, including the rs2241766 G/T polymorphism, were positively associated with plasma adiponectin levels⁵³. The ADIPOQ gene polymorphism (rs2241766) has been considered a potential obesity-related single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP)⁵⁴, although there have been discrepancies among various ethnic groups. Mutations have been shown to affect stable mRNA production by changing RNA splicing or stability in experimental designs, indicating that adiponectin expression varies by allele. In heterozygous subjects' adipose tissue, the G allele transcribed much higher levels of stable mRNA than the T allele⁵⁵. This may be tested since obesity has been connected to ADIPOQ-rs2241766 G/T polymorphisms. ACDC is a crucial protein in obesity and may act as a marker for metabolic dysfunction and an elevated risk of cardiovascular disease at higher levels.

Proprotein Convertase Subtilisin/Kexin Type 1 (PCSK1)

Genetic variations in the *PCSK1* gene have been closely connected to monogenic obesity⁵⁸. The gene encodes an enzyme that converts prohormones to active hormones in brain endocrine cells and regulates energy and metabolism⁵⁶. This gene contains 15 exons in humans and is found on chromosome 5, with 753 amino acids⁵⁷. This gene is also attributed to glucose metabolism, lipogenesis, and resting energy expenditure. One case of a patient with genetically inherited *PCSK1* deficiency and morbid

obesity has been reported⁵⁹. Benzinou et al. reported in 2008 on the affiliation of three SNPs – rs6232, rs6234, and rs6235 – with obesity⁶⁰. Numerous SNPs have been found to be significantly associated with BMI, but *PCSK1* SNPs have only been mildly attributed to BMI⁶¹. this enzyme plays a significant role in mass body control based on PC1/3 expression and physiological substrates. There is widespread activity of stress in the hypothalamic arcuate and para–ventricular nuclei⁶², which regulates hunger and satiety.

Recent research has found minor mutant alleles of three familiar non-single nucleotide genetic variants (SNPs) at the PCSK1 gene region, rs6232, rs6234, and rs6235, to be associated with an elevated threat of obesity⁶³ or glucose metabolic disturbance⁶⁴. It is known that rs6234 and rs6235, two SNPs located in exon 14, cause amino acid changes at positions 665 in (Gln to Glu) and 690 (Ser to Thr) (Q665E and S690T, in the PC1/3 CT domain), respectively. An amino acid change (Asn to Asp) at position 221 (N221D) in the catalytic domain of PC1/3 was found with the rs6232 variation, which included a CNT distortion in exon 6. The secretory compartments of endocrine and neuroendocrine cells may have PC1/3 activity, although further research is needed to elucidate this possibility. Therefore, although there is still much to learn about PCSK1's involvement in obesity, the evidence indicates its significance in controlling appetite, satiety, and body weight.

Adrenoceptor beta 2 (ADRB2)

Human fat cells have the *ADRB2* gene, which codes for a lipolytic receptor protein. The *ADRB2* gene is found on chromosome 5 between the q31 and q32 bands⁶⁵. Multiple diseases, including hypertension and obesity, have been linked to two common ADRB2 gene polymorphisms characterized by amino acid substitutions of Arg16Gly and Gln27Glun⁶⁶. The beta–2 adrenergic receptor. Arg16Gly

polymorphism has been linked to altered activity of *ADBR2*, resulting in reduced sensitivity⁶⁷. This variation has also been associated with obesity in several groups. According to studies conducted on people of both genders, it has been linked to increased body fat, subcutaneous fat, elevated levels of the hormone leptin, and high triglycerides⁶⁸. Overall, metabolic imbalances and associated health issues may occur due to diminished expression and signaling of β 2–AR in obesity. Hence, a possible therapeutic approach for treating obesity and associated metabolic problems involves targeting β 2–AR signaling.

Uncoupling protein 2 (UCP2)

In humans, the UCP2 gene is found in the chromosomal region 11q13.4, a region associated with energy balance and obesity, and it comprises 309 amino acids with a molecular weight of 33 kDa. Several human investigations have found a link between the UCP polymorphism and exercise efficiency, substrate oxidation, type 2 diabetes risk, bodyweight fluctuations, resting calorie expenditure, BMI, glucose metabolism, obesity risk, physical activity, leptin, fat accumulation, and other factors⁶⁹. These gene variants include a G/A polymorphism in the promoter region (866G/A), an (Ala55Val), and a 45 base pair insertion in the untranslated exon region 8⁷⁰. The relationship between these UCP2 polymorphisms and many characteristics of obesity have been frequently researched. Allele G in the UCP2 promoter region has been associated with increased obesity risk while decreasing the chance of developing type 2 diabetes. A genetic variant called Ala55Val has been associated with greater exercise efficiency.71 UCP2 exon eight insertion allele findings have been unclear so far. Thus, further studies are required to fully unravel UCP2's impacts on energy metabolism and body weight control since its function in obesity is still unknown.

Conclusion concerning insulin resistance, type 2 diabetes

Obesity is caused by disparities in food intake, basal metabolic activity, and energy expenditure and is a significant risk factor for numerous metabolic disorders such as type 2 diabetes, insulin sensitivity, and non-alcoholic fatty liver disease^{72,73}, and associated with an increased likelihood of developing several diseases and conditions, including diabetic complications, heart disease, high blood pressure, osteoarthritis, and some cancers. An combination of genetic, environmental, and lifestyle factors may lead to obesity. Genetics have been proven to substantially impact the development of obesity, even if the precise causes of this disorder are still not completely understood. Many genes undergoing extensive research have been connected to a greater chance of obesity. These genes may affect many biological functions, such as how the body reacts to food, metabolism, and energy expenditure, raising the risk of obesity and weight gain. The study's findings include identifying multiple genetic variations linked to an elevated risk of obesity and a greater body mass index. Our study found that selected gene polymorphisms are related to obesity and play a role in developing obesity among children, adolescents, and young adults. Although GWAS have identified various obesity loci, they only account for a tiny portion of interindividual variance, indicating that more genetic variables are waiting to be identified. However, these discoveries will lead to meaningful treatments, identifying functional variations, and additional molecular and physiologic characterization of the genes and pathways implicated]. However these genes are subject to research restrictions based on race, gender, climate, and biology. Gene alterations may significantly influence the development of obesity. Recently, the investigation of gene alterations linked to obesity has increased substantially. To prevent and treat obesity effectively, lifestyle changes such as diet and exercise must be combined with medical management.

Therefore, further empirical research with the appropriate data is required to examine the improvement and treatment of genetic variations associated with obesity.

Acknowledgment

The authors would like to express their gratitude to the Chettinad Academy of Research and Education for their continuing support and encouragement.

Conflict of interest

All authors have no relevant financial or non-financial competing interests to report

References

- Sengupta J, Das H, Sasithra S, Britto J. An observational study of incidence of metabolic syndrome among patients with controlled Grave's disease. Clin Epidemiol Glob Health 2022;15:101010.
- Flegal KM, Graubard BI, Williamson DF, Gail MH. Causespecific excess deaths associated with underweight, overweight, and obesity. JAMA 2007;298:2028–37.
- Chellaiyan VG, Kamble BD, Raja TK, Liaquathali F, Saha R, Singh SK et al. A study of determinants of obesity-is skipping breakfast meal a risk factor? J Evol Med Dental Sci 2021;10:1883-9.
- Obesity: preventing and managing the global epidemic. Report of a WHO consultation. World Health Organization Tech Rep Ser 2000:894:1–253.
- Ogden CL, Yanovski SZ, Carroll MD, Flegal KM. The epidemiology of obesity. Gastroenterology 2007;132:2087–102.
- Loktionov A. Common gene polymorphisms and nutrition: emerging links with pathogenesis of multifactorial chronic diseases. J Nutri Biochem 2003;14:426–51.
- Pérusse L, Rankinen T, Zuberi A, Chagnon YC, Weisnagel SJ, Argyropoulos G, et al. The human obesity gene map: the 2004 update. Obesity Res 2005;13:381–490.
- Coll AP, Farooqi IS, Challis BG, Yeo GS, O'Rahilly S. Proopiomelanocortin and energy balance: insights from human and murine genetics. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2004;89:2557–62.
- 9. Shapira NA, Lessig MC, He AG, James GA, Driscoll DJ, Liu Y.

- Satiety dysfunction in Prader-Willi syndrome demonstrated by fMRI. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 2005;76:260-2.
- Jia G, Fu YE, Zhao XU, Dai Q, Zheng G, Yang Y, et al. N6-methyladenosine in nuclear RNA is a major substrate of the obesity-associated FTO. Nat Chem Bio 201;7:885-7.
- Dina C, Meyre D, Gallina S, Durand E, Körner A, Jacobson P, et al. Variation in FTO contributes to childhood obesity and severe adult obesity. Nat Gene 2007;39:724-6.
- Frayling TM, Timpson NJ, Weedon MN, Zeggini E, Freathy RM, Lindgren CM, et al. A common variant in the FTO gene is associated with body mass index and predisposes to childhood and adult obesity. Science 2007;316:889–94.
- Karra E, O'Daly OG, Choudhury AI, Yousseif A, Millership S, Neary MT, et al. A link between FTO, ghrelin, and impaired brain food-cue responsivity. J Clin Inves 2013;123:3539-51.
- Eissing L. Metabolism: FTO-associated obesity risk is linked to brain food responses via modulation of ghrelin levels. Nat Rev Endo 2013;9:564. doi: 10.1038/nrendo.2013.155.
- Cusi K. The role of adipose tissue and lipotoxicity in the pathogenesis of type 2 diabetes. Cur Diab Rep 2010;10:306–15.
- Zhao X, Yang Y, Sun BF, Shi Y, Yang X, Xiao W, et al. FTO-dependent demethylation of N6-methyladenosine regulates mRNA splicing and is required for adipogenesis. Cell Res 2014; 24:1403-19.
- Isse N, Ogawa Y, Tamura N, Masuzaki H, Mori K, Okazaki T, et al. Structural organization and chromosomal assignment of the human obese gene. J Bio Chem 1995;270:27728–33.
- 18. Mammes O, Betoulle D, Aubert R, Giraud V, Tuzet S, Petiet A, et al. Novel polymorphisms in the 5'region of the LEP gene: association with leptin levels and response to low-calorie diet in human obesity. Diabetes 1998;47:487-90.
- He Y, Chen H, Quon MJ, Reitman M. The mouse obese gene: Genomic organization, promoter activity, and activation by ccaat/enhancer-binding protein α. J Bio Chem 1995;270:28887– 91.
- Lönnqvist F, Arner P, Nordfors L, Schalling M. Overexpression of the obese (ob) gene in adipose tissue of human obese subjects. Nat Med 1995;1:950-3.
- Miller SG, De Vos P, Guerre-Millo M, Wong K, Hermann T, Staels B, et al. The adipocyte specific transcription factor C/ EBPalpha modulates human ob gene expression. Proceed Nat Aca Sci 1996;93:5507-11.

- Oksanen L, Kainulainen K, Heiman M, Mustajoki P, Kauppinen-Mäkelin R, Kontula K. Novel polymorphism of the human ob gene promoter in lean and morbidly obese subjects. Int J Obe 1997;21:489–94.
- 23. Lucantoni R, Ponti E, Berselli ME, Savia G, Minocci A, Calo G, et al. The A19G polymorphism in the 5' untranslated region of the human obese gene does not affect leptin levels in severely obese patients. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2000;85:3589–91.
- 24. Tartaglia LA. The leptin receptor. J Bio Chem 1997;272:6093-6.
- 25. Watowich SS, Wu H, Socolovsky M, Klingmuller U, Constantinescu SN, Lodish HF. Cytokine receptor signal transduction and the control of hematopoietic cell development. Ann Rev Cell Dev Bio 1996;12:91–128.
- Schwartz MW, Seeley RJ, Campfield LA, Burn P, Baskin DG. Identification of targets of leptin action in rat hypothalamus. Clin Inves 1996;98:1101-6.
- 27. Yiannakouris N, Yannakoulia M, Melistas L, Chan JL, Klimis-Zacas D, Mantzoros CS. The Q223R polymorphism of the leptin receptor gene is significantly associated with obesity and predicts a small percentage of body weight and body composition variability. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2001;86:4434-9.
- 28. Mars M, Van Rossum CT, De Graaf C, Hoebee B, De Groot LC, Kok FJ. Leptin responsiveness to energy restriction: genetic variation in the leptin receptor gene. Obes Res 2004;12:442–4.
- 29. Greene ME, Blumberg B, McBride OW, Yi HF, Kronquist K, Kwan K, et al. Isolation of the human peroxisome proliferator activated receptor gamma cDNA: expression in hematopoietic cells and chromosomal mapping. Gene Expr 1995;4:281–99.
- Mukherjee R, Jow L, Croston GE, Paterniti JR. Identification, characterization, and tissue distribution of human peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR) isoforms PPARγ2 versus PPARγ1 and activation with retinoid X receptor agonists and antagonists. J Bio Chem 1997;272:8071-6.
- Dedoussis GV, Vidra N, Butler J, Papoutsakis C, Yannakoulia M, Hirschhorn JN, et al. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-γ (PPARγ) Pro12Ala polymorphism and risk for pediatric obesity. Clin Chem Lab Med 2009;47:1047-50.
- 32. Ristow M, Müller-Wieland D, Pfeiffer A, Krone W, Kahn CR.

 Obesity associated with a mutation in a genetic regulator of adipocyte differentiation. New Eng J Med 1998;339:953-9.
- Barroso I, Gurnell M, Crowley VE, Agostini M, Schwabe JW,
 Soos MA, et al. Dominant negative mutations in human PPARy

- associated with severe insulin resistance, diabetes mellitus and hypertension. Nature 1999;402:880–3.
- 34. Yen CJ, Beamer BA, Negri C, Silver K, Brown KA, Yarnall DP, et al. Molecular scanning of the human peroxisome proliferator activated receptor γ (hPPAR γ) gene in diabetic Caucasians: identification of a Pro12Ala PPAR γ 2 missense mutation. Biochem. Biophys Res Comm 1997;241:270–4.
- Yamauchi T, Waki H, Kamon J, Murakami K, Motojima K, Komeda K, et al. Inhibition of RXR and PPARγ ameliorates diet-induced obesity and type 2 diabetes. J Clin Invest 2001; 108:1001-13.
- 36. Kolehmainen M, Uusitupa MI, Alhava E, Laakso M, Vidal H. Effect of the Pro12Ala polymorphism in the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR) γ2 gene on the expression of PPARγ target genes in adipose tissue of massively obese subjects. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2003;88:1717-22.
- Oswal A, Yeo GS. The leptin melanocortin pathway and the control of body weight: lessons from human and murine genetics. Obesity Rev 2007;8:293–306.
- Vaisse C, Clement K, Durand E, Hercberg S, Guy-Grand B, Froguel P. Melanocortin-4 receptor mutations are a frequent and heterogeneous cause of morbid obesity. J Clin Inves 2000; 106:253-62.
- Reinehr T, Widhalm K. I'Allemand D, Wiegand S, Wabitsch M, Holl RW. Two-year follow-up in 21,784 overweight children and adolescents with lifestyle intervention. Obesity 2009;17:1196-9.
- 40. Petry CJ, López-Bermejo A, Díaz M, Sebastiani G, Ong KK, De Zegher F, et al. Association between a common variant near MC4R and change in body mass index develops by two weeks of age. Hor Res Paed 2010;73:275-80.
- Loos RJ, Lindgren CM, Li S, Wheeler E, Zhao JH, Prokopenko I, et al. Common variants near MC4R are associated with fat mass, weight and risk of obesity. Nat Gene 2008;40:768–75.
- 42. Tao YX. The melanocortin-4 receptor: physiology, pharmacology, and pathophysiology. Endo Rev 2010;31:506-43.
- 43. Zhang Y, Proenca R, Maffei M, Barone M, Leopold L, Friedman JM. Positional cloning of the mouse obese gene and its human homologue. Nature 1994;372:425–32.
- 44. Gong Y, Lee JN, Brown MS, Goldstein JL, Ye J. Juxtamembranous aspartic acid in Insig-1 and Insig-2 is required for cholesterol homeostasis. Proceed. Nat Acad Sci 2006;103:6154-9.
- 45. Herbert A, Gerry NP, McQueen MB, Heid IM, Pfeufer A,

- Illig T, Wichmann HE, Meitinger T, Hunter D, Hu FB, Colditz G. Response to comments on "A common genetic variant is associated with adult and childhood obesity". Science 2007;315:187.
- 46. Dina C, Meyre D, Samson C, Tichet J, Marre M, Jouret B, Charles MA, Balkau B, Froguel P. Comment on "A common genetic variant is associated with adult and childhood obesity". Science 2007;315:187.
- 47. Saar K, Geller F, Ruschendorf F, Reis A, Friedel S, Schäuble N, et al. Genome scan for childhood and adolescent obesity in German families. Pediatrics 2003;111:321-7.
- 48. Rankinen T, Zuberi A, Chagnon YC, Weisnagel SJ, Argyropoulos G, Walts B, Pérusse L, Bouchard C. The human obesity gene map: the 2005 update. Obesity 2006;14:529-644.
- 49. Vasseur F. The genetics of adiponectin. International Congress Series 2003:1253:37–44.
- Scherer PE, Williams S, Fogliano M, Baldini G, Lodish HF. A novel serum protein similar to C1q, produced exclusively in adipocytes. J Bio Chem 1995;270:26746-9.
- 51. Tomas E, Tsao TS, Saha AK, Murrey HE, Zhang CC, Itani SI, et al. Enhanced muscle fat oxidation and glucose transport by ACRP30 globular domain: Acetyl-CoA carboxylase inhibition and AMP-activated protein kinase activation. Nat Acad Sci 2002;99:16309-13.
- Arita Y, Kihara S, Ouchi N, Takahashi M, Maeda K, Miyagawa JI, et al. Paradoxical decrease of an adipose-specific protein, adiponectin, in obesity. Biochem Biophys Res Comm 1999; 257:79–83.
- 53. Dastani Z, Hivert MF, Timpson N, Perry JR, Yuan X, Scott RA, et al. Novel loci for adiponectin levels and their influence on type 2 diabetes and metabolic traits: a multi-ethnic meta-analysis of 45,891 individuals. PLoS Gene 2012;8:e1002607.
- 54. Beckers S, Peeters AV, De Freitas F, Mertens IL, Verhulst SL, Haentjens D, Desager KN, Van Gaal LF, Van Hul W. Association study and mutation analysis of adiponectin shows association of variants in APM1 with complex obesity in women. Ann Hum Gene 2009;73:492–501.
- 55. Yang WS, Tsou PL, Lee WJ, Tseng DL, Chen CL, Peng CC, Lee KC, Chen MJ, Huang CJ, Tai TY, Chuang LM. Allele– specific differential expression of a common adiponectin gene polymorphism related to obesity. J Mole Med 2003;81:428–34.
- 56. Jackson RS, Creemers JW, Ohagi S, Raffin-Sanson ML,

- Sanders L, Montague CT, Hutton JC, O'Rahilly S. Obesity and impaired prohormone processing associated with mutations in the human prohormone convertase 1 gene. Nat Gene 1997;16:303-6.
- 57. Jackson RS, Creemers JW, Farooqi IS, Raffin-Sanson ML, Varro A, Dockray GJ, et al. Small-intestinal dysfunction accompanies the complex endocrinopathy of human proprotein convertase 1 deficiency. J Clin Invest 2003;112:1550-60.
- 58. Farooqi IS, Volders K, Stanhope R, Heuschkel R, White A, Lank E, et al. Hyperphagia and early-onset obesity due to a novel homozygous missense mutation in prohormone convertase 1/3. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2007;92:3369-73.
- 59. Heni M, Haupt A, Schäfer SA, Ketterer C, Thamer C, Machicao F, et al. Association of obesity risk SNPs in PCSK1with insulin sensitivity and proinsulin conversion. BMC Med Gene 2010;11:1–8
- Benzinou M, Creemers JW, Choquet H, Lobbens S, Dina C, Durand E, et al. Common nonsynonymous variants in PCSK1 confer risk of obesity. Nat Gene 2008;40:943–5.
- 61. Meyre D, Delplanque J, Chèvre JC, Lecoeur C, Lobbens S, Gallina S, et al. Genomewide association study for earlyonset and morbid adult obesity identifies three new risk loci in European populations. Nat Gene 2009;41:157-9.
- Seidah NG, Mowla SJ, Hamelin J, Mamarbachi AM, Benjannet S, Touré BB, et al. Mammalian subtilisin/kexin isozyme SKI-1: a widely expressed proprotein convertase with a unique cleavage specificity and cellular localization. Proc Nat Acad Sci 1999;96:1321-6.
- Benzinou M, Creemers JW, Choquet H, Lobbens S, Dina C, Durand E, et al. Common nonsynonymous variants in PCSK1 confer risk of obesity. Nat Gene 2008;40:943-5.

- 64. Heni M, Haupt A, Schäfer SA, Ketterer C, Thamer C, Machicao F, et al. Association of obesity risk SNPs in PCSK1with insulin sensitivity and proinsulin conversion. BMC Med Genet 2010;11:1–8.
- 65. Bray M, Hagberg J, Perusse L, Rankinen T, Roth S, Wolfarth B, et al. The human gene map for performance and health-related fitness phenotypes: the 2006–2007 update. Med Sci Sports Exerc 2009;41:35–73.
- Martínez-Hernández A, Enriquez L, Moreno-Moreno MJ, Marti
 A. Genetics of obesity. Pub Health Nutr 2007;10:1138-44.
- 67. Macho-Azcarate T, Calabuig J, Martí A, Martinez JA. A maximal effort trial in obese women carrying the β2-adrenoceptor Gln27Glu polymorphism. J Physi Biochem 2002;58:103-8.
- 68. Corbalan M, Marti A, Forga L, Martinez-Gonzalez MA, Martinez JA. The 27Glu polymorphism of the beta2-adrenergic receptor gene interacts with physical activity influencing obesity risk among female subjects. Clin Gene 2002;61:305-7.
- 69. Fleury C, Neverova M, Collins S, Raimbault S, Champigny O, Levi-Meyrueis C, et al. Uncoupling protein-2: a novel gene linked to obesity and hyperinsulinemia. Nat Gene 1997;15:269-72.
- 70. Marti A, Martinez JA. Obesity studies in candidate genes. Med Clin 2004;122:542–51.
- Zurbano R, Ochoa MC, Moreno-Aliaga MJ, Martinez JA, Martinez A. Influence of the-866G/A polymorphism of the UCP2 gene on an obese pediatric population. Nutr Hosp 2006;21:52-6.
- 72. Christine Konner AC. Selective insulin and leptin resistance in metabolic disorders. Cell Metab 2012;16:144–52.
- Marchesini G, Moscatiello S, Di Domizio S, Forlani G. Obesityassociated liver disease. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2008;93: S74-80.