1	Neural and behavioral endophenotypes of obesity.
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23 Abstract

24 Background

Impulsivity is a risk factor for obesity. It has different underlying facets that can be assessed using questionnaires. Impulsivity can be further refined by the use of food-specific questionnaires, which measure a tendency to uncontrolled eating. We examined how these impulsivity measures relate to each other, to obesity, and to brain anatomy.

29 *Methods*

We assessed students in their first year of university - a risky period for weight gain- at the beginning (N = 2214) and at the end of the school year (N = 1145) using questionnaire measures of impulsivity, personality, stress reactivity and eating-specific traits. A subset of participants (N = 72) underwent T1-weighted MRI to investigate the brain correlates of impulsivity.

34 *Results*

35 Using factor analysis, we show that impulsivity can be stratified into three domains, which we 36 label stress reactivity, reward sensitivity and self-control, while eating questionnaires resolve into a single latent factor - uncontrolled eating. A watershed model shows that uncontrolled 37 38 eating mediates the effect of impulsivity traits on BMI. Self-control and stress reactivity scores 39 are associated with a thinner lateral orbitofrontal cortex. In addition, stress reactivity correlates 40 positively with amygdala and negatively with hippocampal volume. Longitudinally, lack of self-41 control, not uncontrolled eating, correlates with weight gain, while stress reactivity correlates 42 with weight loss in male students.

43 *Conclusions*

The brain-impulsivity-obesity relationship is hierarchical. Structural brain differences relate to
 differences in impulsivity domains which affect BMI via uncontrolled eating. However,

- 46 longitudinally, low self-control, not uncontrolled eating, is a predictor of weight gain in this
- 47 sample.

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66 Introduction

Obesity is a neurobehavioral disorder that stems from a vulnerable brain in a disease-promoting 67 68 environment (1). Its risk factors can be studied as endophenotypes - intermediate phenotypes that 69 link biological processes to observable outcomes (2, 3). Broadly, the neurobehavioral 70 endophenotypes associated with obesity can be categorized as domain-general and eating-71 specific (4). The main domain-general endophenotype identified to date is impulsivity, defined 72 as a tendency to act without full consideration of the consequences. Impulsivity is a multifaceted 73 trait that has been associated with pathological gambling, substance abuse, and obesity (5, 6). 74 Meta-analysis of impulsivity questionnaires revealed that impulsivity can further be subdivided into three domains that align with personality factors (5): 1) low conscientiousness, reflecting 75 76 self-control; 2) neuroticism, a reflection of an individual's sensitivity to stress and aversive 77 events, and 3) *extraversion*, reflecting an individual's sensitivity to rewards (7–9). The 78 magnitude and directionality of the association between impulsivity and obesity have been 79 inconsistent (4, 10, 11). This inconsistency could be explained by different impulsivity measures 80 and domains used across studies (4, 5, 11), and to weak effect sizes relating general impulsivity 81 to BMI (12). Therefore, eating specific impulsivity questionnaires may better capture the 82 vulnerability endophenotype.

83

Eating-specific impulsivity constructs include emotional eating (13), disinhibited eating (14) and power of food (15). Scores on all these questionnaires consistently and strongly correlate with BMI (4, 16) and with each other (17). Different eating behavior questionnaires may be depicting a common underlying latent factor for eating specific impulsivity (16, 18). This can be labelled uncontrolled eating (UE). While both general impulsivity traits and UE have been linked to

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increased BMI, the relationships between different impulsivity domains, UE and obesity remain to be tested (i.e. some impulsivity traits might be associated with eating-specific impulsive behavior which in turn will be linked to BMI (11, 12, 19)). Statistically, if true, this hypothesis implies a complete mediation of general impulsivity traits on BMI via eating-specific impulsivity. However, so far, comprehensive models have not been built for all impulsivity domains and eating questionnaires, and have not been applied to the prediction of weight gain.

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96 There is considerable overlap between the brain regions associated with obesity and the brain 97 regions associated with impulsivity (10, 20, 21). Scores from both general impulsivity and conscientiousness scales are inversely correlated with the thickness of the lateral prefrontal 98 99 cortex (PFC) (8, 22–25) - a region that has been related to cognitive control. Neuroticism is 100 positively correlated with amygdala volume and negatively correlated with hippocampal volume 101 and prefrontal cortex thickness (26–29). Extraversion and sensation seeking correlate positively 102 with medial orbitofrontal cortex (mOFC) and ventromedial PFC (vmPFC) volume (8, 30, 31), a 103 region associated with the computation of value (32). These results support a model where the 104 impulsivity endophenotype might be mapped to the brain as reduced cortical thickness in the 105 prefrontal cortex and increased gray matter volume in brain structures (e.g. amygdala, OFC, 106 mPFC) associated with reward and value computation (33). Such a brain endophenotype has also 107 been associated with obesity (4, 10, 21). Differences in brain morphometry and function might 108 underlie differences in impulsivity and might thereby be associated with obesity.

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110 If impulsivity (either general or eating-specific) is a risk factor for obesity, people with these risk 111 endophenotypes will have higher BMI and will gain more weight compared to their peers with

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112 non-risk endophenotypes. So far, most analyses have been conducted on cross-sectional datasets 113 making it difficult to say if impulsivity is a risk factor or a consequence of obesity (4). The 114 freshman year of university creates an ideal time period to test these hypotheses both cross-115 sectionally and longitudinally. During this time, students transition into a new environment with 116 access to similar food and exercise options, allowing underlying vulnerability to express itself. 117 Weight gain often happens in this short period of time and affects approximately 50-60% of 118 students (34–40). Of the risk factors for weight gain, eating specific behaviors that revolve 119 around the concept of impulsivity have been most commonly studied, but the results have been 120 contradictory (38, 41-44).

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122 We used structural brain imaging measures, general and eating-specific impulsivity 123 questionnaires, and measures of BMI and weight gain in freshman students to test the hypothesis 124 that the relationship between brain, impulsivity and obesity is hierarchical. We utilized a 125 hierarchical statistical framework referred to as a 'watershed model' to study the relationship 126 between impulsivity endophenotypes. This methodological framework has previously proven 127 useful to study the relationships between age, brain structure and intelligence (2, 45, 46). From 128 this perspective, brain structure will influence impulsivity measures which could affect eating-129 specific impulsivity (namely, UE) that is associated with over-eating. We predicted that UE 130 would mediate the relationship between general impulsivity and BMI domains, and act as a risk 131 factor for weight gain during the freshman year of university.

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135 Methods and Materials

136 Participants

Participants were first year McGill university students, at least 18 years of age, recruited via an advertisement sent to the incoming class electronic mailing list. Participants provided their consent online and data were collected using the online survey tool LimeSurvey (https://www.limesurvey.org) over three consecutive years. The study was approved by the Montreal Neurological Institute Research Ethics Board. Participants for the brain imaging experiment gave additional consent before participating.

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144 <u>Questionnaires</u>

145 Participants filled out the following online questionnaires: "Big Five" personality dimensions 146 (Openness/ Imagination, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Extraversion, and Neuroticism) 147 from the International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) (47), two subscales (lack of perseverance and 148 sensation seeking) of the UPPS Impulsive Behavior Scale (48), Cohen's Perceived Stress Scale 149 (PSS) (49), and Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale (50) as well as eating specific questionnaires such as the disinhibition subscale of Three-Factor Eating Questionnaire (TFEQ)(14), emotional eating 150 151 subscale of Dutch Eating Behavior Questionnaires (DEBQ) (13), and all subscales of Power of 152 Food Scale (PFS) (15) (Table 1). A subset (N=1145) of our initial population completed a 153 follow-up questionnaire in the spring for longitudinal assessment. Our questionnaire included 154 two "catch" questions and three "catch-match" questions as a measure of the level of participants' 155 attention in completing the survey. Participants with total catch scores above three were 156 excluded. An additional exclusion criterion was BMI under 15 or above 45, resulting in a 157 sample of 2213 participants (Males N= 752; Females N= 1461). Only after completion of the

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158	questionnaire, participants were asked to visit our laboratory to have their BMI measured in both
159	the fall and spring. BMI was measured from 333 participants in the fall, and from 209
160	participants in the spring semester (N =115 overlap with the fall group) using a medical scale and
161	a stadiometer. Reported BMI was highly correlated with measured BMI in the fall ($r = 0.91$,
162	$p < 10^{-5}$) and in the spring (r = 0.92, $p < 10^{-5}$). We replaced the reported BMI with measured BMI
163	in the analyses for higher accuracy. BMI was further residualized for age, sex and a covariate to
164	account for whether it was reported or measured. Brain imaging was conducted on a subset of
165	participants (N=72) selected from this sample in the fall.
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167	Magnetic Resonance Imaging parameters and preprocessing
168	High-resolution T1-weighted anatomical images with voxel size = $1x1x1$ mm were obtained (TR
169	= 2.3 s; TE = 2.98 ms; FOV phase=93.8°; FOV = 256mm) with a Siemens Magnetom Trio 3T
170	MRI scanner at the Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI).
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filtering (51), correction for intensity inhomogeneity (52) and linear intensity scaling using histogram matching to the ICBM-MNI152 template. The images were linearly registered to ICBM-MNI152 template (9 parameter registration) (53). A mask of the brain was generated using BEaST, a nonlocal segmentation method applied to the linearly registered images in stereotaxic space (54).

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179 Deformation Based Morphometry

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Deformation Based Morphometry is utilized to calculate the local difference in tissue volume between subjects (55). Each MRI was non-linearly transformed to the stereotaxic ICBM-MNI152 template. The local deformation, a measure of tissue expansion or shrinkage, was then computed at each voxel. We utilized Deformation Based Morphometry as it is suggested to be the most sensitive morphometric method for studying subcortical anatomy (as explained in (56)).

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187 <u>Cortical Thickness</u>

188 All T1-weighted MRI images were processed using the CIVET pipeline (version 2.1; 189 http://www.bic.mni.mcgill.ca/ServicesSoftware/CIVET). Native T1-weighted MRI scans were 190 first corrected using the N3 algorithm, underwent brain masking, and registration to ICBM-191 MNI152 template. Images were then segmented into gray matter (GM), white matter (WM), 192 cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) and background using a neural net classifier. The white matter (inner) 193 and gray matter (outer) cortical surfaces were extracted using the Constrained Laplacian-based 194 Automated Segmentation with Proximities algorithm (CLASP). The resulting surfaces were 195 resampled to a stereotaxic surface template to provide vertex-based measures of cortical 196 thickness. All resulting images went through a stringent quality control by two inspectors in 197 which 69 of 72 images were accepted for further analysis. Cortical thickness was then measured 198 in MNI space using the linked distance between the two surfaces across vertices and a 20mm 199 surface smoothing kernel was applied to the data. The Desikan-Killiany-Tourville (DKT) atlas 200 was used to parcellate the surface into 64 cortical regions (57). Cortical thickness was averaged 201 over all vertices (left and right) in each region of interest (ROI) for each subject. The subject 202 mean cortical thickness was regressed out from the ROIs before further analysis.

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204 <u>Factor Analysis</u>

205 Factor analysis was carried out in order to (i) understand the shared variance of the measured 206 variables, which can be attributed to latent factor(s) and (ii) reduce the collinearity between the 207 questionnaire scores. The correlation matrix of the impulsivity traits is shown in Figure S2. 208 Questionnaire scores were z-scored for this group and entered into the factor analysis. 209 Exploratory Factor Analysis was carried out first in order to identify the underlying factor 210 structure of our set of observed variables. All of the statistical analyses are carried out in R version 3.3 (58). To account for missing values, we used the R "Amelia" library to impute data 211 212 (59). We conducted our exploratory factor analysis on the split half of our population of 2213 213 participants (N=1107) to create our model. Factor selection was conducted using parallel 214 analysis via the faparallel function from the Psych package in R (60). The generated pattern 215 matrix of standardized loadings suggested the existence of a 3-factor latent structure (Table S1).

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217 Afterwards, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was utilized to test the relationship between our 218 observed variables and their underlying latent factors in both split-halves of the sample (61). All 219 structural equation models were fit using package Lavaan 0.5 (62). BMI was log transformed to 220 increase normality. Models were fit using full information maximum likelihood (FIML) using robust standard errors. Model fit was assessed with the chi-square test (X^2) , the Comparative Fit 221 222 index (CFI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) and the standardized root 223 mean squared residuals (SRMR). The following guidelines were utilized for judging good fit: 224 CFI>0.95; RMSEA<0.08 and SRMR <0.10 (63). The hierarchical relationship between 225 impulsivity, UE and BMI was tested using the watershed framework (see supplementary

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material, also explained in (46)). Only variables that survived multiple comparisons with False
Discovery Rate (FDR) are displayed as significant. The *p* values reported are FDR corrected.

- 228
- 229 <u>Results</u>

230 Eating-specific impulsivity factor uncontrolled eating is correlated with BMI

231 Participant characteristics are listed in Table 1. We first tested if UE emerged as a latent factor 232 that captures the covariance between the eating questionnaires, namely Disinhibition (TFEQ), 233 Power of Food, and Emotional Eating (DEBQ) (Figure 1-A). We created the model in the first split-half sample, and verified it in the second split-half. Both models resulted in good fits and 234 235 returned similar loadings (Table S2). Following the best practices in structural equation 236 modeling (64), here we report our model in the full sample. A single factor confirmatory factor 237 analysis for UE provided a good fit for our data. Figure 1-B shows that UE correlated with BMI 238 $(\beta = 0.37, p < 10^{-5})$ and explained 9.2% of the variance in BMI (F (1, 2206) = 223.7, p < 10^{-5}).

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General impulsivity traits can be explained with a three-factor latent structure and are correlated with BMI

We next tested the relationship between general impulsivity measures and UE and BMI. A data driven exploratory factor analysis in a split-half of the data suggested a three-factor latent factor structure for impulsivity traits (Table S1). The first factor had a negative loading from the Rosenberg self-esteem questionnaire and positive loadings from Neuroticism (IPIP) and the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS). We labelled this factor 'Stress Reactivity (STRESS)'. The second factor had a positive loading from Lack of Perseverance (UPPS) and a negative loading from Conscientiousness (IPIP). We labelled this latent factor 'Lack of Self Control'. The third factor

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249	was named 'Reward Sensitivity' (REWARD) and it was characterized by positive loadings from
250	the Extraversion (IPIP) and Sensation Seeking (UPPS) subscales (Table 1). We next tested if
251	these general impulsivity domains were associated with BMI. Using confirmatory factor
252	analysis, we showed that there is a small but significant correlation between STRESS and BMI
253	$(\beta = 0.08, p=0.028)$, and REWARD and BMI ($\beta = 0.09, p = 0.028$) (Figure 1-C).

254

255 The relationship between general impulsivity, uncontrolled eating, and BMI

256 General impulsivity traits might exert their effects on BMI via UE, eating-specific 257 impulsivity. To test this, we fit the full watershed model integrating the general impulsivity 258 latent factors, the UE latent factor and BMI (Figure 1-D). Our model satisfied the predictions of 259 the watershed model (46, see supplementary materials). These results showed that the 260 relationship between general impulsivity, UE and BMI is hierarchical. Furthermore, our 261 watershed model was selective for eating behaviors. For example, when alcohol intake (i.e. how 262 many alcoholic beverages do you consume a week?) was utilized as the outcome variable in the 263 watershed model, general impulsivity factors, but not UE, explained 25.6% of the variance in 264 alcohol intake (Figure S3).

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266 UE mediates the relationship of stress reactivity and reward sensitivity to BMI

We additionally utilized mediation analysis to test if UE mediates the relationships between STRESS and BMI and REWARD and BMI. Using the structural equation model framework, we simultaneously modelled two pathways: UE mediates (i) the effect of REWARD on BMI and (ii) the effect of STRESS on BMI. The analysis confirmed that the effects of STRESS and REWARD on BMI were mediated by UE (76% mediation; Figure 2; Table S3).

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273 Prefrontal and subcortical brain structures are associated with impulsivity traits

274 We hypothesized that structural brain measures might be related to the latent impulsivity factors. 275 To test this hypothesis, we included brain regions that have been linked to impulsivity traits and 276 obesity in the full model. Cortical regions were measured using cortical thickness (CT) and 277 anatomical differences in subcortical regions were measured using deformation-based 278 morphometry. We found that STRESS was positively associated with amygdala volume (β = 279 0.29, p = 0.035) and inversely with hippocampal volume ($\beta = -0.33$, p = 0.021) and lateral OFC 280 thickness ($\beta = -0.31$, p = 0.035). Lack of self-control inversely correlated with lateral OFC 281 cortical thickness ($\beta = -0.33$, p = 0.041). Independent of these relationships, superior frontal 282 gyrus thickness inversely correlated with BMI ($\beta = -0.38$, p = 0.014).

283

284 Longitudinal Predictors of Weight Gain

285 We next looked for predictors of change in body weight in the first year of university (Figure 4-286 A). Our results revealed that students gained on average 0.51 kg (SD \pm = 3.22) in the first year of 287 university (August/September to April/May), which is a small but significant effect (t = 5.4, df =288 1133, p-value = $p < 10^{-5}$, %95 CI = 0.32-0.68). We utilized percent BMI change as the outcome 289 variable to account for the initial BMI. Our model explained 1.5 % of the variance in percent 290 BMI change (Figure 4-A). According to our model, UE did not significantly predict BMI 291 change in this sample ($\beta = 0.03$, p = 0.57). Among the impulsivity factors, Lack of Self Control 292 predicted weight change ($\beta = 0.10$, p = 0.028), while stress reactivity predicted weight loss ($\beta = -$ 293 0.13, p = 0.028). A post-hoc regression analysis of the relationship between stress reactivity and 294 weight change revealed that this negative correlation was driven by males. In male students,

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STRESS explained 2% of the variance in weight reduction ($\beta = -0.17$, p = 0.0053, N= 360, R² = 0.02). No significant correlation emerged for female students ($\beta = -0.061$, p = 0.15, N = 788, R² = 0.001) (Figure 4-B).

298

299 **Discussion**

The purpose of the current study was twofold (i) to provide a comprehensive link between brain structure, impulsivity and obesity, and (ii) to characterize the temporal relationship between impulsivity and weight changes. We utilized a large sample size (N>2000) of first-year students and accounted for the multidimensional nature of impulsivity to study these relationships. The models were developed in the first split-half of the sample and replicated in the second.

305

306 We first stratified impulsivity into two domains: general and eating-specific, and then tested the 307 relationship between these two domains. We showed that the variance of different eating-specific 308 questionnaires can be captured by a general underlying latent factor (UE). UE had a strong 309 relationship to BMI. This result was consistent with previous studies suggesting that different 310 food questionnaires are measuring different severity levels of a common latent factor: eating-311 specific impulsivity (16, 18). Next, we demonstrated that the commonly used general impulsivity 312 questionnaires can be explained in a three-factor structure that align with the general personality 313 domains of neuroticism (stress sensitivity), conscientiousness (self-control), and extraversion 314 (reward sensitivity) (Figure 1-C). This result is in agreement with the previously published meta-315 analysis of impulsivity factor structure (5), and highlights the multifaceted nature of impulsivity.

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317 We hypothesized that people with general impulsivity traits might also exhibit eating-specific 318 impulsivity, and that the relationship between general personality domains, UE and BMI would 319 be hierarchical. Using the hierarchical watershed model, we first showed that each general 320 impulsivity domain had an independent and positive correlation with UE (Figure 1-D). While 321 stress reactivity and reward sensitivity weakly correlated with BMI, we showed that this was 322 mediated by UE (Figure 2). This mediation was specific for BMI. For example, increased scores 323 in each general impulsivity domain, but not UE, were linked to increased alcohol intake (Figure 324 S3). This suggests eating-specific impulsivity (UE) captures the relationship between impulsivity 325 and obesity.

326

327 Differences in brain structure might underlie differences in impulsivity domains (20). We next 328 tested if brain morphometry related to impulsivity or if it had an independent correlation with 329 BMI. Our results showed that cortical thickness in lateral OFC is inversely related to the self-330 control and stress reactivity latent factor scores (Figure 3). This is in line of the role of lateral 331 OFC in maintaining goal-oriented focus by suppressing irrelevant information (65-67). 332 Furthermore, lateral OFC and its neighboring ventrolateral PFC have also been implicated in 333 emotional regulation, particularly in the reduction of negative affect (66, 68, 69). Lateral OFC 334 thickness has been shown to be lower in adults with obesity (70). Our results add to this literature 335 and suggest that reduced lateral OFC thickness might affect impulsivity and thereby appetite 336 control and obesity.

337

Both amygdala and hippocampus have been implicated in the control of food intake as well as in stress reactivity (71–74). In this study we showed that a personality dimension related to stress

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reactivity was associated with greater amygdala volume and lower hippocampal volume, consistent with previous reports (26, 27, 75). Our results suggest that differences in amygdala and hippocampal volumes might relate to increased stress reactivity which can lead to UE and obesity. Independent of these relationships, we showed that superior frontal gyrus thickness was inversely related to BMI consistent with the literature (70, 76, 77). This suggests that some brain regions might be important in overeating and obesity independent of impulsivity.

346

347 Finally, we tested the hypothesis UE underlies vulnerability for weight gain. We utilized the 348 transition period into university that is associated with high risk of weight gain to study this 349 hypothesis. In our sample, the average weight gain was small, but significant, and was similar to 350 previously reported studies (40). However, in this sample we failed to find that UE was a 351 predictor of weight gain. This could be due to limited duration of the study. Furthermore, the 352 directionality of the UE-BMI relationship could contribute to this result: changes in body weight 353 might lead to longitudinal variations in eating-specific impulsivity. For instance, scores in 354 different uncontrolled eating scales decrease after bariatric surgery (78-81) or voluntary weight loss (82, 83). In this study, weight changes correlated with changes in disinhibition score from 355 356 TFEQ (has the highest loading UE) between spring and fall semesters ($\beta = 0.088$, p = 0.02, N = 357 660), supporting this view.

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Our results support a model in which weight gain results from lack of self-control. Upon transitioning into a new environment, difficulties in self-control could compromise the maintenance of behaviors that promote healthy weight. High scores on conscientiousness have been consistently linked to a lower risk of having and developing obesity across independent

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363 samples (84, 85). These results are generally derived from sample populations with a higher 364 mean age than ours, suggesting that self-control deficits may be more associated with BMI as 365 individuals age and start making their own food decision. Our findings thus point to self-control 366 deficits as risk factors for future weight gain in young populations.

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368 Higher stress reactivity correlated with longitudinal weight loss in our study. This result is 369 surprising, and yet, it is consistent with the existence of bidirectional effects of stress on eating 370 behaviors. Stress is associated both with weight-gain and weight-loss longitudinally (86, 87). 371 This bidirectional relationship might be partly mediated by sex differences, since there seem to 372 be biological and psychological variations in stress responses among sexes (88). Male 373 participants that report distress at the transition from high school to university tend to lose weight 374 (89) and decrease their food intake compared to female participants (90). In a similar vein, our 375 post hoc analysis revealed that stress reactivity was associated with weight loss only in male 376 students. Conversely, the stress reactive endophenotype was associated with higher BMI, 377 possibly due to differences in the effects of chronic versus acute stress on appetite and weight 378 gain (91).

379

The results of our study should be considered with regards to its limitations. Although we had a large sample group, whereby we were able to detect and replicate results from meta-analyses, most of our measures were self-reported. In addition, brain imaging was conducted with a smaller subset from the sample. Therefore, the relationship between impulsivity and brain morphometry were only tested in regions of interest based on the literature. This limits the generalizability of the brain imaging results.

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387 Conclusions

The present study provides a comprehensive characterization of the relationships between different facets of impulsivity and obesity. We show that structural brain differences relate to differences in impulsivity domains which affect BMI via eating-specific impulsivity (UE). However, predictors of weight gain, at least in the short-term, are different than the risk factors associated with increased BMI. Deficits in self-control, not UE, predict longitudinal weight gain, while higher stress reactivity predicts weight loss in the first year of university (in males). These findings highlight the role of self-control deficits in longitudinal weight gain. Our results might inform future clinical strategies aimed at fostering self-control abilities to prevent and/or treat unhealthy weight gain.

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416	
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665 **Table 1. Descriptive statistics of the study variables.**

666 2214 Students (34% Males) filled the questionnaires in the fall semester. Out of the 2214 students, 1145 answered the questionnaires in the spring. There were no significant 667 668 differences in the variables of interest between participants who completed only fall and 669 who completed both fall and spring questionnaires (Figure S1). Paired t-tests revealed that BMI in the spring (mean difference 0.15 kg/m^2 ; t = 4.40, p-value = $1.5*10^{-5}$, 95% Cl: 0.08 -670 671 0.22) and weight in the spring (mean difference 0.51 kg; t = 5.32, $p < 10^{-5}$, 95% Cl: 0.32 -0.70) were significantly different from the fall values. 95% Cl refer to 95 percent 672 673 confidence intervals. UE: Uncontrolled Eating.

Variables	Mean	SD (±)	min	max
Age	19.8	3.4	18.0	52.0
BMI (kg/m ²)	22.2	3.4	15.5	42.8
Spring BMI (kg/m ²)	22.3	3.3	14.7	44.3
Disinhibition (Three-Factor Eating Questionnaire (14))	6.4	3.4	0.0	16.0
Emotional Eating (Dutch Eating Behavior Questionnaire (13))	2.5	0.7	1.0	4.8
Power of Food (PFS) (15)	12.4	3.7	5.0	25.0
Lack of Perseverance (the UPPS Impulsive Behavior Scale (48))	1.9	0.4	1.0	3.7
Sensation Seeking (the UPPS Impulsive Behavior Scale (48))	2.8	0.6	1.0	4.0
Rosenberg Self Esteem (50)	29.9	5.0	13.0	40.0
Cohen's Perceived Stress Scale (49)	24.5	7.2	2.0	52.0

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Neuroticism (International Personality Item Pool (47))	11.6	2.9	4.0	20.0
Agreeableness (International Personality Item Pool(47))	15.6	2.8	4.0	20.0
Imagination (International Personality Item Pool(47))	15.2	2.7	4.0	20.0
Conscientiousness (International Personality Item Pool (47))	14.0	2.9	4.0	20.0
Extraversion (International Personality Item Pool(47))	12.1	3.5	4.0	20.0
Change in weight in first year (kg)	0.51	3.22	-13.0	15.0

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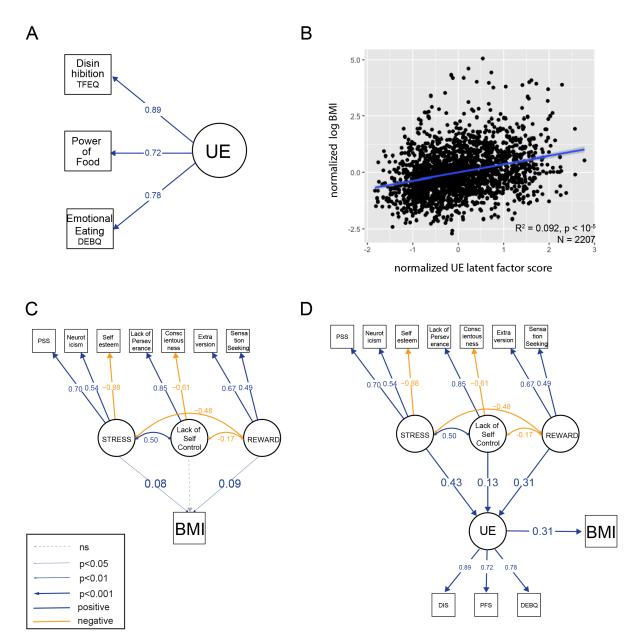
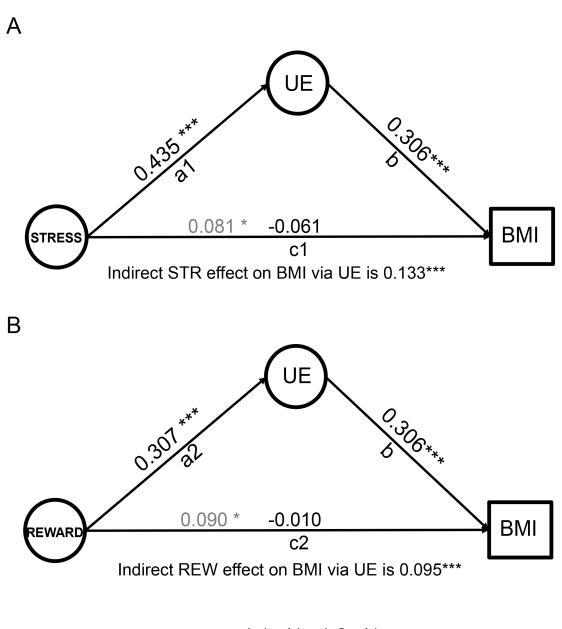


Figure 1. Eating-specific impulsivity UE correlates with general impulsivity traits and with BMI. A) A single-factor confirmatory factor analysis for uncontrolled eating fits the data well $(X^2=30.28, df=4, p<.001, CFI=.992, RMSEA=.054, SRMR=.015)$. B) Linear fit of UE with log BMI. C) Confirmatory factor analysis analysis of impulsivity traits with three latent factors fit the data well ($X^2=147.277, df=14, p<.001, CFI=.963, RMSEA=.066, SRMR=.03$). After multiple comparison correction, STRESS and REWARD are weakly correlated with BMI. D) The full watershed model that links general impulsivity traits to UE and UE to BMI fits the data

698	well. (X ² =328.03, df=34, p<.001, CFI=.957, RMSEA=.063, SRMR=.035) REWARD: Reward
699	Sensitivity; STRESS: Stress Reactivity; UE: Uncontrolled Eating. B-D represent normalized
700	scores that have been residualized for age and sex. DEBQ: Emotional eating from DEBQ scale;
701	DIS: Disinhibition from TFEQ; PFS: Power of Food Scale; PSS: Perceived Stress Scale; Self-
702	esteem: Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale. Significant relationships after FDR correction for multiple
703	comparisons are shown in blue or yellow based on the directionality of the relationship.
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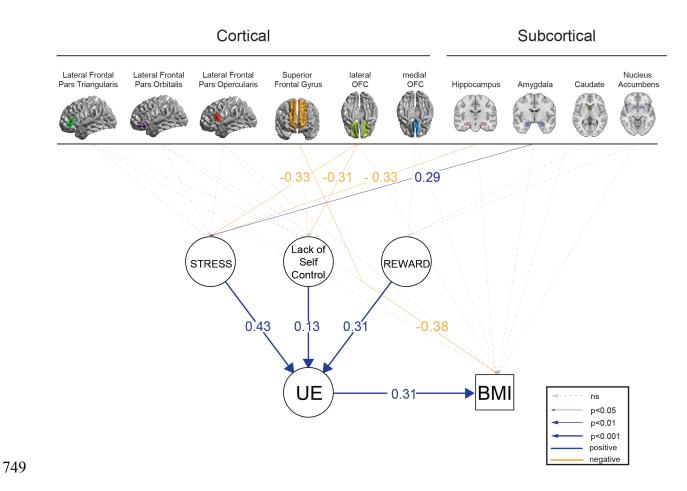


Mediation Effect Size =
$$\frac{(a1 \times b) + (a2 \times b)}{c1 + c2 + (a1 \times b) + (a2 \times b)} \times 100 = 76 \%$$

Figure 2. Mediation model for BMI. The mediation model tests the hypothesis that the effect of general personality traits- STRESS and REWARD- on BMI is mediated by UE. In mediation models, there are three paths, a, b and c, between the variables. Full mediation will result in the direct relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable (path c) to become insignificant when taking the mediator into account (path a). The mediation models were

727	fit together in structural equation model framework but displayed on separate figures as A and B.
728	REWARD: Reward Sensitivity; STRESS: Stress Reactivity; UE: Uncontrolled Eating. Gray
729	numbers represent the regression coefficients between general impulsivity traits and BMI
730	without UE as shown in Figure 1-C. * <i>P</i> <0.05, ** <i>P</i> <0.01, *** <i>P</i> <0.001.
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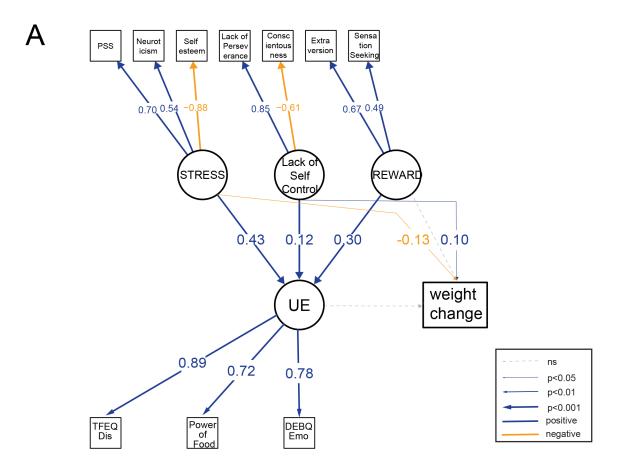
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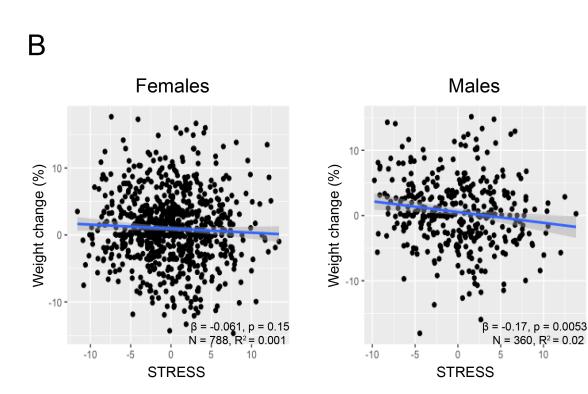


750 Figure 3. The full watershed model with structural brain parameters. This model fits the 751 data well (X²= 440.485, df=120, p<.001, CFI=.954, RMSEA=.035, SRMR=.07). All of the 752 numbers shown reflect parameters that are standardized and residualized for age and sex. The 753 correlations within the latent factors and within the brain parameters are allowed but not shown 754 for simplicity. Significant relationships after FDR correction for multiple comparisons are shown 755 in blue or yellow based on the directionality of the relationship. Dashed lines represent tested 756 nonsignificant regressions. REWARD: Reward Sensitivity; STRESS: Stress Reactivity; UE: 757 Uncontrolled Eating.

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761 Figure 4. Predictors of weight gain in first year university students. A) This model represents 762 the whole watershed model with percent BMI change as the outcome variable in (N = 1134). The data fits this model well (X²=124.855, df=34, p<.001, CFI=.972, RMSEA=.048, SRMR=.03). 763 764 All of the numbers shown reflect parameters that are standardized and residualized for age and 765 sex. Significant relationships after FDR correction for multiple comparisons are shown in blue or 766 yellow based on the directionality of the relationship. B) Regression analysis of STRESS 767 endophenotype with weight change is only significant in male students. Raw data is plotted in panel B. UE: Uncontrolled Eating; STRESS: Stress Reactivity; REWARD: Reward Sensitivity. 768

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	Scho	ol Year 🗕			
	spring as	ned for sessment 1148)	spring as	return for ssessment 1065)	
	Mean	SD (+/-)	Mean	SD (+/-)	р
Age	19.7	3.4	19.9	3.4	0.65
BMI (kg/m ²)	22.2	3.3	22.3	3.6	0.65
Disinhibition (from TFEQ)	6.4	3.4	6.4	3.2	0.99
Emotional Eating (from DEBQ)	2.4	0.8	2.5	0.7	0.11
Power of Food (PFS)	12.4	3.8	12.3	3.5	0.89
Lack of Perseverance (from UPPS)	1.9	0.5	1.9	0.4	0.89
Sensation Seeking (from UPPS)	2.8	0.6	2.8	0.5	0.89
Rosenberg Self Esteem (RES)	29.7	5.3	30.1	4.6	0.23
Perceived Stress Scale (PSS)	24.8	7.4	24.2	6.9	0.23
Neuroticism (from IPIP)	11.6	3.2	11.7	2.7	0.65
Agreeableness (from IPIP)	15.7	3.0	15.5	2.6	0.65
Imagination (from IPIP)	15.2	2.9	15.2	2.5	0.98
Conscientiousness (from IPIP) Extraversion (from IPIP)	14.0 11.9	3.2 3.7	14.0 12.2	2.7 3.3	0.98 0.11

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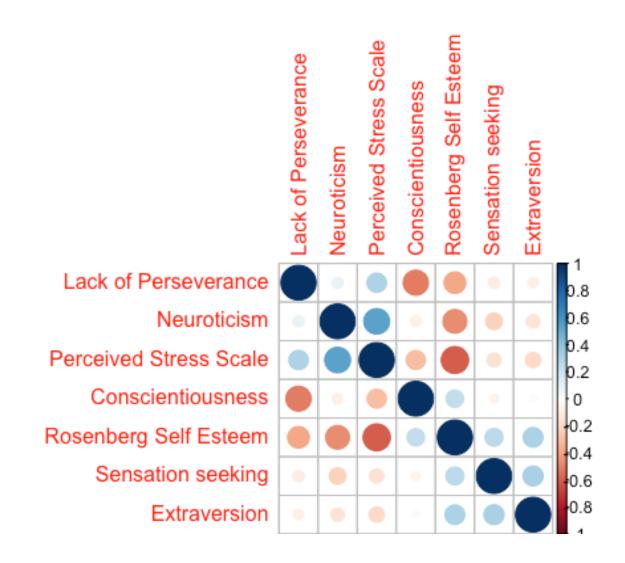
3 Supplementary Figure 1. Descriptive statistics of participants who completed only the first

4 session in the fall and who completed both sessions. There were no significant differences in

5 the variables of interest between participants between these groups after FDR correction.

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9 Supplementary Figure 2. Correlation plot of the impulsivity traits used in the exploratory factor 10 analysis. Blue colors refer to positive correlations, red refer to negative correlations. The size of 11 the circle is modulated by the correlation coefficient value. The correlation is shown only for the 12 split half of the data.

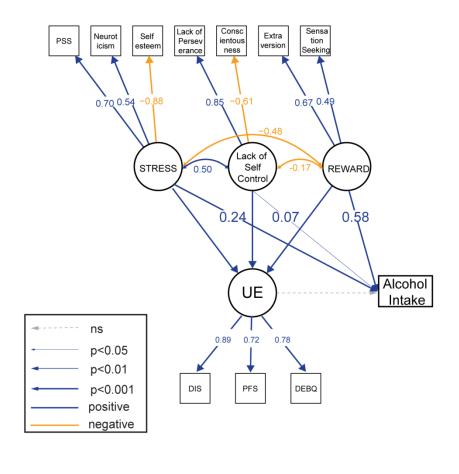
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19 Supplementary Figure 3. Uncontrolled eating does not correlate with alcohol intake.

The full watershed model that links general impulsivity traits to UE and alcohol fits the data well ($X^2=242.058$, df=43, p<.001, CFI=.971, RMSEA=.046, SRMR=.032). This model explains 25.6 % of the variance in reported alcoholic beverages consumption per week. All of the numbers sho wn reflect parameters that are fully standardized and residualized for age and sex. Significant rel ationships after FDR correction for multiple comparisons are shown in blue or yellow based on t

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25 he directionality of the relationship. UE: Uncontrolled Eating; STRESS: Stress Reactivity; REW

26 ARD: Reward Sensitivity.

27 Supplementary Table 1. Results of the exploratory factor analysis.

Parallel analysis is a technique that compares the scree plot of the observed data with that of a random data matrix of the same size as the original (Revelle). Sharp breaks in the scree plot, which plots successive eigenvalues, provide an estimation of the appropriate number of factors to extract. After analyzing the generated pattern matrix, we decided to exclude Imagination, Restraint, Agreeableness from our factor structure. These variables had poor communalities, meaning our factor structure explained a relatively low fraction of the variance for these variables. Re-running our parallel analysis suggested that the optimal number of factors = 3.

35 Parallel analysis suggests that the number of factors = 3

36	Factor	Analysis	using	method	=	minres	

37 Call: fa(r = r, nfactors = 3, n.obs = nrow(means))

38 Standardized loadings (pattern matrix) based upon correlation matrix

40		item	MR1	MR2	MR3	h2	u2	com
41	Perceived Stress Scale	7	0.85			0.73	0.27	1.0
42	Neuroticism	6	0.70			0.46	0.54	1.1
43	Rosenberg Self Esteem	3	-0.56			0.60	0.40	1.6
44	Lack of Perseverance	1		-0.84		0.70	0.30	1.0
45	Conscientiousness	5		0.60		0.43	0.57	1.3
46	Sensation seeking	2			0.62	0.39	0.61	1.0
47	Extraversion	4			0.50	0.27	0.73	1.0

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48	
49	MR1 MR2 MR3
50	SS loadings 1.62 1.17 0.78
51	Proportion Var 0.23 0.17 0.11
52	Cumulative Var 0.23 0.40 0.51
53	Proportion Explained 0.45 0.33 0.22
54	Cumulative Proportion 0.45 0.78 1.00
55	
56	With factor correlations of
57	MR1 MR2 MR3
58	MR1 1.00 -0.39 -0.36
59	MR2 -0.39 1.00 0.11
60	MR3 -0.36 0.11 1.00
61	
62	Tucker Lewis Index of factoring reliability = 0.889
63	RMSEA index = 0.094 and the 90 % confidence intervals are 0.066 0.124
64	BIC = 10.88
65	Fit based upon off diagonal values = 1
66	Measures of factor score adequacy
67	
68	
69	
70	
71	

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72 Supplementary Table 2. Values from the CFA analysis of uncontrolled eating (UE) in the

73 first and second split half of the sample.

74

		X ²	df	P value	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
	UE1	11.83	4	0.019	0.995	0.042	0.014
	UE2	19.32	4	0.001	0.990	0.059	0.017
75						1	
76							
77							
78							
79							
80							
81							
82							
83							
84							
85							
86							

87 Supplementary Table 3. Mediation Analysis Results

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88	lavaan (0.5-23.109	97) converg	ed normal	ly after	43 itera [.]	tions		
89								
90					Used	Tot	al	
91	Number of observ	vations			2208	22	13	
92								
93	Number of missin	ng patterns			2			
94								
95	Estimator			ML				
96	Minimum Function		328.032					
97	Degrees of free		34					
98	P-value (Chi-square)				0.000			
99								
100	Parameter Estimate	25:						
101								
102	Information				Observed			
103	Standard Errors				Standard			
104								
105	Latent Variables:							
106		Estimate	Std.Err	z-value	P(> z)	Std.lv	Std.all	
107	STRESS =~							
108	PSS	1.000				0.691	0.702	
109	Neuroticism	0.736	0.029	25.789	0.000	0.509	0.533	
110	Rosenberg	-1.248	0.054	-23.236	0.000	-0.863	-0.883	
111	Lack of Self Com	ntrol =~						

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112	Lack of Pe	rsever	1.000				0.830	0.846
113	Conscient	iousnes	s-0.726	0.049	-14.704	0.000	-0.603	-0.609
114	REWARD =~							
115	Extravers	ion	1.000				0.675	0.677
116	Sensation	Seeking	0.701	0.064	10.987	0.000	0.473	0.492
117	UE =~							
118	Disinhibi	tion	1.000				0.845	0.886
119	PFST		0.820	0.024	33.882	0.000	0.693	0.721
120	DEBQ		0.864	0.024	36.314	0.000	0.730	0.780
121								
122	Regressions:							
123		E	stimate	Std.Err	z-value	P(> z)	Std.lv	Std.all
124	UE ~							
125	STRESS	(a1)	0.526	0.051	10.286	0.000	0.430	0.430
126	LackofSC		0.140	0.035	4.034	0.000	0.137	0.137
127	REWARD	(a2)	0.385	0.058	6.627	0.000	0.308	0.308
128	logBMI ~							
129	STRESS	(c1)	-0.085	0.055	-1.555	0.120	-0.059	-0.061
130	LackofSC		-0.025	0.034	-0.724	0.469	-0.021	-0.021
131	REWARD	(c2)	-0.014	0.055	-0.257	0.797	-0.010	-0.010
132	UE	(b)	0.352	0.031	11.289	0.000	0.297	0.309
133								
134								
135	Mediation Pa	rameter	s:					
136			Estimate	e Std.Err	r z-value	e P(> z)	Std.l	v Std.all

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137	STRESS to BMI (a1)	-0.085	0.055	-1.555	0.120	-0.059	-0.061	
138	REWARD to BMI (a2)	-0.014	0.055	-0.257	0.797	-0.010	-0.010	
139	STRESS via UE (c1)	0.185	0.025	7.449	0.000	0.128	0.133	
140	REWARD via UE (c2)	0.136	0.024	5.599	0.000	0.091	0.095	
141	total effect	0.221	0.093	2.387	0.017	0.151	0.157	
142	mediation effect	0.763	0.026	29.443	0.000	0.762	0.762	
143								
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151								
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153								
154	Watershed model							
1				1. D.C.				

155 In order to study the endophenotypes that related to BMI in a watershed model, we needed to 156 statistically satisfy three major criteria (as explained in 1, 2). 1) Higher statistical dimensionality

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157 between upstream variables compared with downstream variables. The statistical dimensionality 158 of the covariance pattern between all variables will increase as we move upstream in the model. 159 The result will be that the upstream effects (i.e. brain or personality traits) cannot be fully 160 captured by a single summary statistic. We tried to capture our cortical thickness variables as a 161 single latent factor (not shown), but this model had a poor fit suggesting that upstream brain 162 variables cannot be reduced to a single dimension. In addition, general impulsivity traits were 163 only captured using three factors as opposed to one latent factor. Furthermore, the upstream 164 effects were partially independent: all of the endophenotypes (i.e. STRESS, Lack of Self 165 Control, REWARD) did better than each individual endophenotype (e.g. STRESS) in predicting 166 the downstream outcome (i.e. UE). 2) Multiple realisability. According to the watershed model, 167 there are multiple precursory causes for a complex endophenotype. In other words, a single 168 behavioural dimension such as UE is likely to have multiple neural determinants. In an SEM 169 framework, this means the variability in each endophenotype (i.e. STRESS, Lack of Self 170 Control, REWARD) will make partially independent contributions to variability in UE 171 endophenotype. 3) Hierarchical dependence. The watershed model should exhibit a hierarchical 172 dependence. That means statistically there should be no residual, or direct, relationships between 173 levels. In the present context this implies that the influence of general personality variables on 174 BMI will be indirect, namely through UE. In the SEM formalization of this hypothesis, any 175 direct paths between general impulsivity domains and BMI will be a source of model misfit, and 176 mediation analysis will reveal either partial or no mediation.

177 1. Kievit RA, Davis SW, Griffiths J, Correia MM, Cam-Can, Henson RN (2016): A watershed

178 model of individual differences in fluid intelligence. *Neuropsychologia*. 91: 186–198.

179 2. Kievit RA, Davis SW, Mitchell DJ, Taylor JR, Duncan J, Tyler LK, et al. (2014): Distinct

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- 180 aspects of frontal lobe structure mediate age-related differences in fluid intelligence and
- 181 multitasking. Nat Commun. 5: 5658.

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